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- CHIFFCHASE, J., Wholesale and Export Boot and Shoe Manufacturer (Emigrants and Sailors supplied), 227, High-street, Shadwell; 23, Three Cold-street, Lincolns, and 8, Bedford-place, Commercial-road, E.C.4.
- CHRISTY, H., Wholesale Potter and Glass Manufacturer, 1, Union-row, Tower-hill.
- CLARK & Co., Engineers and Patent Boring Machine Manufacturers, Tunnel Iron Works, 238, Wapping, and Manufacturers of the Patent Convex Revolving Safety Wrought Iron Shutters; office, 31, Canney-lane.
- CLARK, G., Importer of Colonial Coffee. Orders executed promptly with due consideration to the quality of every article in the Tea and Coffee Trade, 135, Tottenham-court-road.
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- CLARK, J. H., Court Hood-Dress and Transparent Peruke Maker, &c., 1, Vigo-street, Regent-street.
- CLAPTON, J., Ancient Irish and Modern Lace, Fan and Moire Antique Warehouse. By appointment—Milliner, Dr., 1, Closet, and Habit Maker, at 170, Regent-st., 79, Bond-street, Liverpool, and 24, Princess-street, Manchester.
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- CLAYTON, W., & Co., Wholesale Export Perfumers, Fancy Soap and Brush Manufacturers, and General Warehousemen, 72, Watling-street.
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- COLMAN, J. & J., Mustard (warranted to keep in all climates), Rice, and Wheat Starch, and Indigo Blue Manufacturers, 26, Cannon-street, City.
- COLLINGRIDGE, C. B., Grocer and Cheesemonger, 8, Copple-row, Clerkenwell.
- COLLINS, R. N., Wholesale Druggist and Patentee of the Disinfecting Powder for instantaneously destroying offensive smells, purifying sick rooms, workshops, &c., and for making Bleaching Liquid, 1, Oxford-court, Cannon-street, City.
- COMYNS, H., Optician, 5, Hereford-place, King's-rd., Chelsea.
- CUNNOR & Co., Glass Works, Ballynacregart, Belfast.
- COOK, R., Shipping Butcher, 8, Churton-street, Finsbury.
- COOK, SON, & Co., Manchester Warehousemen, St. Paul's Churchyard.
- COOPER, G. A., & Co., Fancy Tea-Box and Tea-Canister Makers and General Japaners, 43, Red Lion-street, Clerkenwell.
- COOPER, J., & Co., Manufacturers of Patent Pianofortes for Exportation, 43, Moorgate-street.
- COOPER, J., & SONS, Manufacturers of the Patent Solid Pianofortes for India and the Colonies, of great strength and fullness of tone, 70, Berners-street, Oxford-street.
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- COOPER, W. F., Manufacturer of all kinds of Waterproof Clothing, General Outfitter, and Importer of American Over-Shoes, 16, High-street, Algate.
- COPNER, —, Fishmonger, New-street, Birmingham.
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- COTTON, C. R., Export Cooper, Bermondsey-wall.
- COULSHAW, WILLIAM, Jun., Tailor and Trowser Maker, 17, Radcliffe-terrace, Goswell-road, opposite Spencer-street.
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- COX, F., Optician, 100, Newgate-street.
- COX, J., Optician and Mathematical Instrument Maker, 5, Barbican.
- CRAIGHT, R., Scale, Weight, and Weighing Machine Manufacturer, 91, Goswell-street.
- CRIBB, W. E., Chronometer and Watch Maker, 17, Southampton-row, Russell-square.
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- DAVIES, JAS., & SON, Wholesale and Export Boot and Shoe Warehouse, 9, Gracechurch-street.
- DAVIS, W. J., Emery and Black Lead Manufacturer, New Weston-street, Southwark.
- DAVIS, E. J., Marquee and Rick Cloth Manufacturer, West Smithfield.
- DAVIS, G. P., Manufacturer of Laurencott's Patent Cooking Apparatus, and the Portable Washing Coppers, Gas Fitter, &c., 11, Barbican, City.
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- DEAR & WARRINER, Wholesale and Export Toy Warehouse, 191, Bishopsgate-street, Without.
- DEARE, F. D., Australian Commission Merchant, East India Chambers, Leadenhall-street.
- DEED, J. S., Currier, Morocco, Roan, Kid, and Lamb Leather Dresser, and Wool Rug Manufacturer, 9 and 10, Little Newport-street.—Manufactory, Steyne Mills, Acton.
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- DOBSON, H. T., Wire Worker, Blind Maker, Wrought Iron Verandah Builder, Surrey Wire Works, 55, Borough-road, Southwark, and at Church-st., Walton-on-Thames.
- DOBSON, J., Optician and Mathematical Instrument Maker, 268, High Holborn.
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- EARDENSOBY, J., Wholesale and Export Ladies' Boot and Shoe Manufacturer, 10, Wellclose-square.
- EARL, WILLIAM, Esq., Timber Merchant, Commercial-road, Lambeth.
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- ELLEY, T. B., Shoe and Leather Manufacturer, Consignee for French Shoes and Leather, Stafford, and 3, Victoria-street, Holborn, Wholesale War house, 71, Dale-street, Liverpool.
- ELLIS, T., Carriage and Harness Maker for Exportation to extreme climates, 60, High-street, Whitechapel.
- ELIWOOD, J. & SONS, Wholesale and Export Hat Manufacturers, 24, Great Charlotte-street, Blackfriars-road.
- ELSTON & SONS, R., Watch Dial Manufacturers, 24, Myddleton-street, Clerkenwell.
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- FRENCH, J., & SONS, Wholesale Manufacturing Goldsmiths and Jewellers, 5, Newcastle-place, Clerkenwell-close.
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- FROST, W., Brass Founder and General Caster for Gas Fitters, Engineers, and Ship Builders, 17, Half Moon-street, Bishopsgate-street.
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- GOODREHERE & Co., Wholesale and Export Ironmongers, Iron and Brass Founders, Ship Smiths, Timmen and Braziers; Manufacturers of Troop, Emigrant, and Ships' Fire Hearths, 9, Wellclose-square.
- GOODE & BOLAND, Gold and Silver Chain Manufacturers, 59, Hutton-garden, and Birmingham.
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- GOSLETT, A., Wholesale Looking Glass Manufacturer, Crown, Sheet, Patent Plate, and Ornamental Glass Merchant, 26, Soho-square.
- GOY, EVANS, & Co., General Outfitters, 175, Piccadilly, and 24 and 25, Cornhill.
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- GRIENWOOD, T., Church, Turret, House, and Musical Clock Manufacturer, 5, St. James's-walk, Clerkenwell.
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- HAWKINGS, J., Wholesale Stationer, 5, Albion-place, Blackfriars Bridge.
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- HOLDICH, G. M., Organ Builder, 4, Judd-place East, King's Cross, New-road.
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- HOLLIS, G., Pewterer and Manufacturer of Worms, Stills, Refrigerators, Soda Water and Beer Machines, Pots, &c., 27, Crown-street, Finsbury-square.
- HOLGATE, J., Contractor for Railway Stores, Cotton Waste Dealer, &c., 9, Arthur-street West, City.
- HOLGATE, J., & Co., (late Blow), Curriers, Leather Dressers, and Manufacturers of Machine Straps, Hose Pipes, &c., 21, Great Dover Road.
- HOLMAN, E. W., Pianoforte Maker for Home use or Exportation to extreme Climates, 10, Grafton-st., Fitzroy-sq.
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- HOUGH, PETER, Card Maker, Glasgow.
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- HOY, J., & Co., Wine and Spirit Merchants, 6, Store-lane, Belfast.
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- HUNTER, J., Merchant, 110, Fenchurch-street.
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- JACOBS & TOWERS, Carvers, Gilders, & Wholesale Looking Glass Manufacturers, 56, Mansell-st. Goodman's fields.
- JACKSON & GRAHAM, Upholsterers, Cabinetmakers, Interior Decorators, & Carpet Manufacturers, 37 & 38, Oxford-st.
- JAMRACK, J. C., Naturalist, Fixed Agent to the Zoological Society at Amsterdam, 164, Ratcliff-highway.
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- JENKINSON, W., Saddler, Home & Export Harness and Saddle Manufacturer, 44, London Wall, City.
- JERRAM, G. T., Soap Manufacturer, General Perfumery and Fancy Brush Warehouse, 69, Hatton-garden.
- JOHNSON, H., Builder and Contractor, 46, Hatton-garden.
- JONES, G., Diamond Worker and Jeweller, 20, Baker-street, Bagnigge Wells-road, Clerkenwell.
- JONES, J. C. & Co., Manufacturers of Pianofortes expressly for Foreign Climates, &c., 21B, Soho-square.
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- KENNARD, A. W., Cork Manufacturer for Exportation, 24, Eastcheap.
- KENYON, T., Chemical Works, Newton Bank.
- KENYON, T. & Co., Manufacturing Chemists, Newton Bank; Chemical Works, Miles Platting, near Manchester.
- KING, GEORGE, Real Manufacturer of Paint, Household, and Fancy Brushes, for Exportation, 116, Bunhill-row, Finsbury.
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- LANSDELL, T., Tailor, Clothier, & Outfitter, 327, High Holborn.
- LATHAM, J., Wholesale and Export Pianoforte Manufacturer, 28, Howland-street, Fitzroy-square.
- LAUGHTON, J., Wholesale Export Boot and Shoe Manfr. and Warehouseman, 46, Mansell-street, Goodman's-fields.
- LAYTON, E., Patent Piano Manufacturer, 121, St. John-street, Clerkenwell, and 18, Goulden-terrace, Islington.
- LE CAPELEIN, STEELE & CO., Chief Patent Office, 123, Chancery-lane: Branch Offices in the Chief Towns at home and on the Continent. Prospectuses gratis.
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- LEE, Coach Builder, Park Lane.
- LEES & BARNES, Brass and Iron Founders, and Manufacturers of all descriptions of Power Looms, and Machinery in general, Soho Iron Works, Greengates-moor, near Manchester.
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- LESSWARE, H., Coppersmith, Brazier, and Worm Maker, 24, Great Alie-street, Whitechapel.
- LEVICK, (Brothers), Merchants, 9, King's Arms-yard, Coleman-street.
- LEVY, A., Merchant and Warehouseman, 103, Minories, and George-street, Sydney, New South Wales.
- LEVY, J., Wholesale and Export Stationer, Account Book and Envelope Manufacturer, 94, Houndsditch.
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- LOCKYER, J., Metal, Steel, Wire, and Tool Warehouse, 23, St. John's-square, Clerkenwell.
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- MCGILSHAN & FIELD, Manufacturers of every description of Machinery, Wholesale Brass Cook Foundry, Copper-smiths and Braziers, 16, Long-acre, and 19, Hart-street, Covent-garden.
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- MAGNAY & BENNETT, Wholesale and Export Stationers, Thames-street.
- MAGNUS, G. E., Inventor and Patentee of Enamelled Slate Chimney-pieces, Inlaid Table and Workstand Tops, Mural Tablets and Monuments, Patentee and Manufacturer to Prince Albert and the Duke of Wellington, &c., of Slate Billiard Tables, with Slate Frame and Legs, Vendor of every description of Slate, plain and ornamental, 39 and 10, Upper Belgrave-place, Piccadilly.
- MAGNUS, N., Wholesale and Export Boot, Shoe, and Leather Manufacturer, 13, Fore-street, Cripple-gate.
- MANDLER, C., Electro-Plater, &c., 14, Queen-st., Clerkenwell.
- MARGES, OLIVER & CO., Flax and Tow Spinners, Shoe Thread, Sail Cloth, Wool Bag, Sacking, and Twine Manufacturers, 22, Laurence-lane, Cheapside, and Borton Factory, Wincanton, Somerset.
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- MAPLE, J., Wholesale and Retail Cabinet Manufacturer, and General House Furnishing Warehouseman, 115, 116, and 117, Tottenham-court-road.
- MARR, W., Electro-Plater, 6, Abchurch-lane, Clerkenwell.
- MARKS, A., Wholesale and Export Spring, Folding, and Paris Hat Manufacturer, 5, Houndsditch.
- MARSDEN, JOSEPH, Manufacturer of Ladies' and Gentlemen's Dressing Cases, Razor Boxes, Portable Writing Desks, Tool and Plate Cases, Pattern Cards, Bowie Knife Sheaths, Cutlery, and Jewel Cases, 8, Westfield-terrace, Sheffield.
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- MARTIN, E., Boot, Shoe, and Golosh Maker, Wholesale, Retail, and for Exportation, 3, Church-st., Rotherhithe.
- MARTIN, R., Cork Manufacturer, Importer of French and Spanish Corks, Corks in Bond for exportation, 20, Swan-st., Minories, and 16, John-st., Crutched-fears.
- MASTERS, T., Patentee of the Freezing Machines and Wine Coolers, Aerated Water Machines, Rotary Knife-cleaning Machines, Anti-Corrosive Self-Closing Taps, Cooking Apparatus, &c., 309, Regent-st., and 353, Oxford-st.
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- MAUGHLING, J. S., Shipping Butcher, 14, New-road, St. George's-in-the-East.
- MAYES, J., Clock Manufacturer and Dealer in Clock Tools and Materials, 19, St. John's-square, Clerkenwell.
- MAYHEW & CO., Hat and Cap Manufacturers, 89, New Bond-street, Manufactory, Union-street, Southwark.
- MEASAM & CO., Medicated Cream Soap and Regenerative Carpet Soap Manufacturers, Patent Metal Seal Envelope, Note, and Letter Paper Makers, and General Stationers, 238, Strand, and 4, Castle-street, Holborn.
- MEDBURST, T., Manufacturer of Patent Weighing Machines, Scales and Weights, Ironfounder, and Engineer, 465, New Oxford-street.
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- MERRICK, R., Dressing and Jewellery Case, Writing and Travelling Desk Manufacturer, 57, Red Lion-street, Clerkenwell.
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- MOSES, SON, & DAVIS, Merchants, Wholesale Clothiers, General Exporters, & Agents for the Sale of Colonial Produce, 11 & 15, Aldgate, High-street.

- MOSS, B., & Co., East London Plate and Sheet-Glass Company, Wholesale Manufacturers and Exporters of Looking-Glasses, 45, Leman-street, Goodman's-fields.
- MOUTRIE, W. F. C., Patent Pianoforte Manufacturer on his Newly Registered Designs, 4, King-street, Bloomsbury.
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- MYERS, JOSEPH, AND CO., Importers of French, German, Swiss, and Italian Manufactures, Toy Merchants, and General Factors, 144, Leadenhall-street.
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- NEAL, T., Steel Corn and Coffee Mill Maker, 45, St. John-street, Smithfield.
- NEGRETTI, H., Manufacturer of Glass Chemical Apparatus, 11, Hatton-garden.
- NEVEY, G., Pump, Water Closet, Cock, and Beer Engine Manufacturer, Gas Fitter, and General Brass Finisher, 104, Hampstead-road.
- NEWHAM, H., Export Ship Biscuit and Bread Baker, 24, King-street, Tower-hill.
- NEWTON, J. & G., Wholesale and Export Manufacturers of Enamelled Molekins and Waterproof Coating, Grove-street, Walworth-common.
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- NICHOLS, WILLIAM, Wholesale Boot and Shoe Warehouse, 136, St. John-street, West Smithfield—manufactory at Raunds, Northamptonshire.
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- NOTLEY, H., Brush Manufacturer, 12, St. John's-lane, Clerkenwell.
- NOWELL, W. H., Wholesale and Export Brush and Painting-Brush Manufacturer, 7, Brick-lane, Whitechapel.
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- OLIVER & EDWARDS, Watch Case Manufacturers, 19, Galway-street, St. Luke's.
- ORGAN, W., Wholesale Saddler, Stafford-street, Walsall.
- OSBORN, Mr., Abdon-school, York.
- OVERALL, S., Fish Factor, &c., 102, Lower Thames-street.
- OWEN, J., Wholesale and Export Trunk, Chest, Box, and Packing Case Manufacturer, 38, Minories.
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- PAGET, R. G., Marquee and Tent Manufacturer, 40, West Smithfield.
- PAINE, WILLIAM, Manufacturer of Brass and Plated Coach Harness Furniture, Bits, Stirrups, &c., Windmill, Walsall.
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- PARNELL & BANNER, Ship and Insurance Brokers, 57, Gracechurch-street.
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- PHIPPS, T., Saddler and Harness Manufacturer, 243, High Holborn.
- PIGGOTT, W., Army Clothier and Marquee Manufacturer, &c., 115, Fore-street.
- PIGGOTT, W. P., Patentee of the Galvanic Belt, by which a continuous current of electricity is made to circulate through the body, preventing rheumatism, sciatica, tic douloureux, hysterics, dyspepsia, and looseness of spirits; improved Telescope Office, 523, New Oxford-st.
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- PITMAN, W., Wine Merchant, 150, Fenchurch-street.
- PITT, W., Wireworker, 15, Weymouth-place, New Kent-rd.
- PIZZALA, A., Wholesale and Export Optician, 19, Hatton-Garden.
- PIKE, Wm., 31, King William-street.
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- PORTER, R., Merchant, 22, East India Chambers.
- POWER, D. E., Merchant, 110, Fenchurch-street.
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- PRINCE & WHITEHOUSE, Ironfounders, Phoenix Ironfoundry, Grove, Great Guildford-st., Southwark.
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- QUINCEY, HANCOCK, Birmingham and Sheffield Agent for all descriptions of Export Ironmongery; Agent for Timothy Smith and Sons, Birmingham, Cabinet Brass Founders and Manufacturers of Lamp Chandeliers and Gas Work; for Martineau and Smith, Birmingham, Manufacturers of Patent and other Cocks, Belts, &c.; also Agent for Patent Steaming Apparatus for extracting Tallow from Animal Carcasses; Screw and Hydraulic Wool Presses, Wrought Iron Lights and

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- RATCLIFFE, J., China, Glass, and Staffordshire Warehouse, shipping supplied on the lowest terms, 3, Heath-place, Commercial-road East.
- READ, R., Instrument Maker, (by special appointment), to Her Majesty and the Hon. East India Company, Patentee of the Stomach Pump, Enema Fountain, &c., &c., 35, Regent-circus, Piccadilly.
- RICHARDSON, —, Esq., Clifton.
- RICHARDSON & Co., Patentees of Lockhead's Perforated Glass Scuttle for Ship Ventilation, and Perforated Glass Ventilators for Houses and other buildings, 35, Royal Exchange, and 473, New Oxford-street.
- RICHARDSON, E., Ship and Insurance Agent, 254, High-street, Wapping.
- RICHARDSON, R., Portable House, Marquee, Rick Cloth, and Wire Fence Maker, 21, Tonbridge-place, New-road.
- RIDGWAY, S. R., Esq., Magdalen House, Ex-ter.
- RIDSDALE, J. & A., Ship's Brass Foundries, General Manufacturers, Lamp Makers, and Gas Fitters, 54, Minories.
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- ROBERTS, J., Importer of Colonial Produce, 31, Barbican.
- ROBINSON, J., & Co., Outfitters, 3 and 6, Nassau-place, Commercial-road, East.
- RODDY, R., Linen Manufacturer, Donegal-street, Belfast.
- ROGERS, —, Esq., North-street, Leeds.
- ROGERS, D., Pianoforte Maker, Tuner, and Selector, St. James's-place, Hampstead-road.
- ROGERS, H., Pianoforte Manufacturer, 63, Warren-street, Fitzroy-square.
- RODGERS & CLEGG, Manufacturers of Pen and Pocket Knives, Bowing Knives, Razors, &c., Earl Works, 20, Earl-street, Sheffield.
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- ROSE, WILLIAM A., Railway Grease, Oil, Lead, Colour, and Varnish Manufacturer—White Zinc Paint—66, Upper Thames-street, 23, Queenhithe, and Bull-wharf, London.
- ROSENTHAL, L. J., Professor of Languages, near the Pantheon, 355, Oxford-st.
- ROSLINBLOOM, J., Boot, Shoe, Cap, and Carpet Bag Manufacturer, Wholesale and for Exportation, 5, 6, and 15, Devonshire-street, Bishopsgate-street, City.
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- ROXBORGH, W. (Established 1730), Shipping and General Stationer, Manufacturer of Patent Ledgers, and other Account-books, 9, Aldgate, City.
- RYMNEY, K., Manufacturing Chemist, Ardwick, Manchester.
- RUNDLE, R., Esq., Devonport.
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- SAMUEL, H. S., Colonial Broker, 133, Fenchurch-street.
- SANDERMAN, A., East India Agent, 8, Old Jewry, Cheap-side.
- SANDERS, C., Gold Refiner, St. John's-square, Clerkenwell.
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BRITISH POSSESSIONS IN THE INDIAN AND PACIFIC OCEANS, RED SEA, MEDITERRANEAN. ETC.

SECTION I.—CEYLON.

CEYLON, known in ancient writings under the terms Singhala, Serendib, Taprobane, Lanka, and other designations, has been, from very remote times, an island of great celebrity. It was visited by Onoseritus, the Macedonian admiral, during the Indian expedition of Alexander: it was imperfectly described by Diodorus Siculus, B.C. 44. Ovid refers to Taprobane as a place so far distant, that it would be no advantage for his fame to be extended thither. Pliny extolled the isle for the purity of its gold and the size of its pearls; and during the reign of Claudius, the Singhalese monarch sent one of his rajahs, or head-men, on an embassy to the imperial city.*

Oriental researches furnish some knowledge of the civilised state of Ceylon previous to the Christian era.† Anuradpoora, the capital, founded B.C. 437, had a walled area sixteen miles square; a list of streets is said to be still in existence. To the north of the ruins of this site there are, or were, not long since, six immense *dagobas* (temples) of hemispherical, or rather bell-shaped form, with spires,—completed A.D. 310; the largest, named Jayatawanarama, was originally 315 feet high, built of brick, and entirely covered with chunam (prepared lime, polished like marble.) In 1832, the elevation was 269 feet; and with the materials of which it is composed, a wall of brick might be constructed twelve feet high, two feet wide, and ninety-seven miles long. There are many other extraordinary ruins, comprising the sites of cities; vast tanks or water reservoirs, sixteen miles in extent, formed by huge blocks of well-cut stone; excellent arched bridges; extensive canals, one estimated at five to fifteen feet deep, and forty to one hundred feet wide; and various buildings, ascribed by

the natives to a race of giants,—those who dug the great canal especially, are traditionally mentioned as men of forty feet in height. The *Abhayagiri* dagoba, built by King Waldgam between the period of his restoration to the throne, B.C. 88, and his death, B.C. 76, is stated by Major Forbes to be the largest ever erected in Ceylon; its elevation was originally 405 feet, and the platform on which it stands, the fosse and surrounding wall, proportionately extensive. The height of the ruin was, in 1828, 230 feet; and the length of the outer wall, one mile and three-quarters. *Toopharamaya* dagoba, constructed B.C. 307, was more elegant in design; low, broad at the top, and surrounded by four lines of pillars, twenty-seven in each line (fixed in an elevated granite platform); height, twenty-four feet; bases, square; shafts, octagonal; capitals, circular; base and shaft, cut in one stone, fourteen inches thick and twenty-two feet long; capitals much broader than base, and highly ornamented. *Ruwanwelli-saye* dagoba, nearly completed B.C. 140, stands on the usual elevated square platform; it is formed of large dressed granite slabs,—each side of the square about 500 feet, and surrounding fosse seventy feet broad. The scarp of the platform is sculptured to represent the fore parts and heads of elephants, projecting and appearing to support the massive structure. The *Lowa-Mahapaya* dagoba, or Brazen Palace, erected B.C. 142, had an altitude of 270 feet, and was covered with one sheet of metal. It contained 1,000 apartments for priests; the loftiest chambers nine stories high. Of this building there are still extant 1,600 stone pillars, placed in forty parallel lines, forty pillars in each, and occupying a square space, each side of which is 234 feet in

* For various details, traditions, and historical notices of facts which are beyond the limits of this work, see Mr. C. Pridhave's *Historical, Political, and Statistical Account of Ceylon*, in 2 vols.: Major Forbes' *Eleven Years in Ceylon*, in 2 vols.: Sir J. E. Tennent's instructive work, *Christianity in Ceylon*, in 1 vol.: Lt.-colonel Campbell's *Excursions in Ceylon*, in 2 vols.; and the writings of Turnour, Knox, Cordiner, Bennett, Sirr, and Knighton.

† According to Singhalese and Pali records, Wijaya, a leader of 700 followers, landed in Ceylon B. C. 543, founded a government at Tamana-oowara, and married the daughter of a native prince. A narrative yet extant of the proceedings of successive sovereigns, for upwards of 2,000 years, relates the maritime expeditions, foreign wars, internal contests, intestine feuds, famines, pestilences, and murders, which form the chief incidents in Asiatic history.

length. The columns in the middle of the ruin are eleven-and-a-half feet above ground, two feet in breadth, and one-and-a-half feet thick, slightly ornamented.* Some of the carvings in granite, strewn for miles around Anuradpoora, which (excepting one reign) was, for upwards of 1,200 years, the capital of Ceylon,† attest the high degree of art the Singhalese had attained. In the figures of men and animals the proportions are more correct, and the action more animated, than is usually seen in modern Oriental sculptures.

Near Mantotte, on the north-west coast, there are ruins of a very large city, whose houses were built with bricks and mortar. At a short distance there is an artificial tank, the basin of which covers an area of about sixteen miles; an embankment nine miles in length is formed of huge stones eight feet long, four feet broad, and three feet thick, cemented together by lime; the length of the dam is 600 feet; breadth, about sixty feet; height, eight to twelve feet. Mantotte is said to have been the capital of a kingdom which the Hindoos established in the northern part of Ceylon. In some of the structures of more remote date, in other parts of the island, no mortar has been used; the stone blocks are neatly cut, and morticed into each other. Kandelly Lake (near Trincomalee), fifteen miles in circumference, is formed by a parapet which connects two hills; the stones twelve to fourteen feet long, broad and thick in proportion; base of parapet, 150 feet wide; summit, thirty feet: there are arches on it; some traversed conduits like those constructed by the Romans in Italy.

The wedge and chisel were used for splitting and shaping huge granite blocks, and were probably similar to those still employed by the Chinese, who, at the present day, cut immense columns of granite from its native quarry; one I measured was twenty-five

feet in length. Sir J. E. Tennent, in 1848, visited, at some hazard from wild beasts and malaria, the ruins of Pathavie tank, in the great central forest of the Wanny, about seventy miles N. of Trincomalee, and twenty-five miles from the sea. His notes furnish a graphic description of "the largest as well as most perfect of these extraordinary works."‡ The tank occupies the basin of a broad and shallow valley, about twelve to fifteen miles long, with a breadth varying from six to ten miles. The embankment by which the waters were accumulated within this area is nearly seven miles long, 300 feet broad at the base, tapering to twenty at the top, and upwards of sixty feet high, faced throughout its whole length by layers of squared stone. One of the existing sluices examined, consists of hewn stones six to twelve feet long: these rise into a ponderous wall immediately above the vents, which regulate the escape of the water; each layer of the work is kept in its place by the frequent insertion endways of long plinths of stone, whose extremities project from the surface, with a flange to prevent the several courses being forced out of their places. The ends of these retaining stones are carved with elephants' heads and other devices, like the extremities of Gothic corbels. The front embankment has been estimated to contain 7,744,000 cubic yards of stone, and the cost to have been, for that portion of the work, above £870,000 sterling. At some unknown period, a breach about 200 feet broad and 100 feet deep, in the embankment, injured the efficiency of the work, and was not repaired. The surrounding country, which must have been at one time thickly peopled, is now desolate; elephants, buffaloes, alligators, pelicans, flamingoes, and other sea-birds, being the only living things seen for miles. There are

* I visited several of these extraordinary ruins; but am indebted to Major Forbes for the measurements and accurate descriptions.

† Robert Knox, who saw Anuradpoora in 1679, when escaping from captivity, mentions in his account of Ceylon, published in 1681, "a world of hewn stone pillars, and other heaps of hewn stones, and, in three or four places, ruins of bridges built of stone, some of them yet standing upon stone pillars: they report ninety kings have reigned there successively." It is remarkable that Mr. Turnour, in his valuable historical epitome, names ninety-two kings who reigned at this capital between 437 B.C. and 729 A.D. — 1,166 years, which would give an average of nearly thirteen years sovereignty to each. In India there were sixty-five Mohammedan rulers between Mahmood the Ghaznivede, in 1001, and

Shah Alum, in 1760 = 759 years, showing an average duration, for each reign, of nearly twelve years. In England, between William I. (1066) and William IV. (1837) = 770 years, there have been (including Oliver Cromwell and son) thirty-five rulers;—average for each, twenty-two years. In France, between the reign of Pharamond (A.D. 427) and Louis Philippe (1818) = 1,421 years, there were (including Napoleon Buonaparte) seventy-nine rulers;—average for each, eighteen years: or from the reign of Hugh Capet (A.D. 987) to that of Louis Philippe = 861 years, thirty-nine rulers, or little more than twenty-two years to each,—about the same duration as that of the sovereigns of England. In China, between 1001 B.C. and 1850, there have been about 166 rulers;—average to each, seventeen years.

‡ Tennent's *Christianity in Ceylon*, p. 337.

about thirty immense tanks, and from five to seven hundred scattered over the island; many still repairable. Sculptured stones, with inscriptions in an unknown tongue, are still extant, and probably, if readable, would reveal the names of the founders of these gigantic and useful structures.

The cave temples which abound in Western India, and which seem to have been identified with Buddhistic rather than Brahminical worship, have their counterparts in Ceylon. One at Dambool, constructed B.C. 100, has been formed under a mass of gneiss, which is nearly 500 feet high; it is profusely decorated. Another singular rock temple, called *Gal-Wihare*, situated about a mile from the numerous ecclesiastical, pallatial, and other vast ruins which indicate the site of *Jayatawanarama*, has the perpendicular face of a sloping cliff, sculptured into colossal statues of Buddha: one, forty-five feet long, in a reclining posture; a second twenty-five feet high, erect (similar to those at Bamian in the Hindoo-Koosh); a third, in the sitting posture, has an altitude of sixteen feet. In another place there is a statue of Buddha, fifty-eight feet high, constructed of brick, with a coating of polished chunam, which gives it the appearance of marble.

In the great forest near Kornegalle, an European, when hunting recently, suddenly came on a magnificent erect and dressed statue of Buddha, fifty feet high; the right hand, as usual, elevated, with the fore-arm bent, and the left hand resting on the shoulder. The figure is carved in the solid stone of the mountain, to which it is still connected at two parts, to maintain the sculpture in its place; the rock is scarped to serve as a wall on either side, on which a timbered roof formerly rested. The work is of unknown antiquity. Some years since, when travelling on a then unfrequented route from Baddula to Kandy, I saw in the forests several gigantic statues, near each of which a priest had his solitary residence; my Singhalese guide was rather unwilling to let me see these venerated spots to which pilgrims resort at stated seasons, and I was unable to find my way thither again.

At Topare, the site of Pollanarua (the Kandian capital between 700 and 1400 A.D.), the forest, for many miles around a

vast tank, contains immense ruins of temples and other edifices erected during the 10th and 12th centuries, which, in the opinion of Sir James Teunent, "display a beauty of design, and an excellence of execution, far surpassing anything, either of a remote or more recent origin, to be seen in other parts of the island." Sir James—himself an experienced connoisseur in the fine arts, as his interesting work on Belgium demonstrates, and whose testimony on these beautiful relics of Oriental architecture is therefore valuable—says, that in many points the ruins of Topare present a striking similarity to the ancient buildings discovered in Mexico and Central America.

It is probable that Ceylon was, before the Christian era, a commercial emporium* for Eastern and Western Asia, and that the Chinese, in their former extensive maritime traffic, made it a station of resort. Marco Polo, A.D. 1284, and Sir John Mandeville, half a century after, visited the island. In 1505, Lorenzo de Almeida (son of the viceroy of Goa), while in command of a fleet of nine vessels, was accidentally driven on the coast of Ceylon. The Portuguese allege that the Singhalese monarch entered into an engagement to furnish them with 250,000 lbs. weight of cinnamon, in return for their defence against all enemies. This is apocryphal, as the Portuguese did not again visit Ceylon for twelve years; when, in 1518, Alvares arrived with a large fleet, commenced erecting a fort, and was attacked by the natives. Despite opposition, the fort was built, in 1519-'20, at Colombo. Contests ensued with the Singhalese; the invaders were shut up for five months in the citadel; a reinforcement of fifty men arrived from Goa, and with a force of 300 soldiers, a successful sortie was made, and the king compelled to sue for peace.

In 1524, the garrison at Colombo was reduced to a factor, secretary, and fifteen men; but these, aided by strong defences, were able to resist the attacks of a body of Malabars, who arrived by sea to aid in their expulsion. It would be tedious to narrate the varied contests, successes, and defeats of the Portuguese and Singhalese for many years; as usual, rival aspirants for power sought European aid,—were throned or de-

* A work, of which only one copy (Arabic text) is known to be extant, entitled *The Travels of the Two Mohammedans*, written in the year 237 of the *Hegira* (A.D. 851), and translated by the Abbé Renaudot in 1718, contains the recital of a merchant named Soleyman, who voyaged to Ceylon and to

China; to this is superadded a narrative compiled by Abu Zeyd Hassan, a geographer, from the travels of several navigators. In this valuable record the extensive commerce and extraordinary riches of Ceylon are mentioned, and likewise the unhappy passion for gambling which still characterises the people.

throned as puppets: war and bloodshed, public crime and private assassinations fill the record. At the close of the 16th century the Portuguese army in Ceylon consisted of 1,500 well-appointed Europeans, together with numerous "half-breed" and native auxiliaries; yet they were, on one occasion, driven back from the interior, and forced to take refuge at Colombo. In 1630 they marched to Ouva, in the interior, but were routed, and their commander slain. In 1638 they again attacked the Kandian territories, with 2,300 regulars and 6,000 native troops, occupied the capital, and committed many atrocities, in return for the king having previously caused several Portuguese to be trampled to death by elephants. Deserted by the Asiatic soldiery, the Europeans retreated to a small fort three miles from Kandy,—were surrounded and defeated by Rajah Singa, the commanders killed, seventy prisoners taken, and none escaped from the rout. The heads of the fallen enemies were cut off and piled before the heir-apparent. The Portuguese do not appear to have again attempted the conquest of the interior, but restricted their exertions to the subjugation of the peaceable and timid natives of the coast, where they built forts at Point de Galle, Jaffna, and other places. The Dutch, in pursuance of the policy practised towards the Portuguese for their expulsion from the coasts of India (see Division X. of this work), did not long leave their rivals unmolested in Ceylon, and obtained sufficient influence at the court of Kandy, so early as 1614, to induce the king to refuse permission to the Portuguese to erect a church and convent at his capital. In 1636, the king addressed a letter to the Dutch governor of Palliacotta, complaining of the dishonourable and violent conduct of the Portuguese, and inviting the Dutch to enter into an alliance for their expulsion from the coast of Ceylon. An embassy was sent to the king from Batavia, who plainly declared that no union with the Portuguese was safe; that, despite all treaties and engagements, they violated his territory, plundered his country, fired the villages; and so long as they had any footing in the island, there could be no protection from their tyranny, and no security from their insults.* An agreement was entered into, under which

the Dutch were to be permitted to erect forts on the eastern coast, to facilitate their operations against the Portuguese on the west coast; the King of Kandy was to bear all the expenses of the war, and the Hollanders were to place in his possession all the fortresses and positions wrested from their common enemy. The Dutch, inflamed with personal hostility and religious zeal against the Portuguese, assaulted them with great violence, and treated the Romanists in pretty much the same spirit that Moslems would have evinced towards idolaters.†

Aided by the Kandiens, the Dutch captured Colombo, Galle, Jaffna; and, in 1656, finally expelled the Portuguese from the island. The king, however, discovered that he had only exchanged one set of European neighbours for another: the Dutch refused to surrender the territories which they had been the chief instruments in conquering, and soon became involved in a war with their recent ally; but every effort to obtain a position in the interior was frustrated, either by open resistance or by treachery, until 1763, when a powerful Dutch force penetrated to Kandy, after considerable opposition, but were unable to retain the city, which, with surrounding conquests, to the extent of twenty miles, was abandoned under a humiliating treaty.

The attitude assumed by the English in India towards the close of the 18th century, and the necessity for a good haven on or near the Coromandel coast, naturally induced the government to covet the possession of at least a part of Ceylon; the more so as Holland was coalescing with France and Spain as an enemy of Britain. In 1782, the governor of Madras, Lord Macartney, dispatched a body of troops under Sir Hector Munro, on board the royal fleet, commanded by Sir Edward Hughes. Trincomalee was captured after a brief resistance, and an envoy (Mr. Boyd) was dispatched to Kandy to secure the favour of the Singhalese monarch; but with little effect. Hughes, after several indecisive naval engagements with the French admiral (Suffrein), then cruising with a large combined fleet in the Indian Ocean, returned to Madras, to embark the E. I. troops he had on board. Suffrein landed, on the 27th of August, a body of troops at Trincomalee,—

* Baldaeus, chap. xix., p. 703.

† The Captain-general of Colombo, in describing to his government the siege of that fort, says, "his pen wants words to describe the affronts put on

their holy things by the heretics, who took the statue of the apostle St. Thomas, and after they had cut off the nose, knocked it full of great nails, and shot it out of a mortar into our ditch."

besieged the small British detachment there, which capitulated on being permitted to march out with the honours of war, and return immediately to Madras. Three days after, Hughes appeared with twelve sail off the harbour, and finding the French flag hoisted, stood out to sea. Suffrein, with a superior force, followed him, and fought a desperate action, only a part of the Gallic ships being engaged: the enemy suffered severely; the English very little. Suffrein retired to Trincomalee; Hughes to Madras.

By the peace of 1783, Trincomalee was restored to the Dutch, but was again attacked by the English in 1795, on the union of the Batavian government with that of France. A large force was sent from Madras, under General Stuart, to expel the Hollanders from the island. After much fatigue and some loss during the siege, the fortress of Trincomalee surrendered; as did also the forts of Jaffnapatam and Negombo, on the first summons. Early in 1796, Stewart, accompanied by a fleet along the coast, marched from Negombo by land, with three European, three native regiments, and a detachment of artillery, to attack Colombo on the land side. The road for twenty miles might have been defended by a small force, but no resistance was offered. At the Kalanc-Gunga, four miles from Colombo, where there was a small fort to protect the Grand Pass, or little neck of land on the south side of an insulated tract, the British paused; but ere two days elapsed, it was found that the guns had been dismounted, the fort evacuated, and that the troops had retreated to Colombo. There the garrison was in a state of com-

plete disorganisation: a small body of Malays, headed by a gallant Frenchman, made an ineffectual resistance near the fort, but Governor Van Angelbeek surrendered to Stuart without firing a shot; Galle, and other Dutch forts, were similarly abandoned, together with a belt of land of unequal breadth all round the island. By the treaty of Amiens, in 1801, this territory was finally annexed to the British Crown.* For a few years, the provinces thus acquired remained under the direction of the Madras authorities, who again opened a fruitless negotiation with the Kandian monarch. In 1798, the Hon. F. North (afterwards Earl of Guilford) was sent from England in a nondescript position, but was ultimately appointed governor-in-chief, under the direct control of the minister of the Crown. The proceedings of Mr. North, in reference to the invasion of Kandy in 1802-'3, and the subsequent destruction of the British troops there by the king, have been variously related. I avail myself, therefore, of a manuscript memorandum, drawn up from official documents for the governor-general in 1803, which I found among the Marquis Wellesley's papers. It accords with some of the published statements which refer to this epoch, but is fuller and more explicit:—

"A short time after the return from Madras to Ceylon of Mr. North, in July, 1799, there was reason to believe that the court of Kandy† began to entertain suspicions of the intentions of the British government, in consequence of an embassy, which it had been taught to expect, not having been sent to that court. These suspicions were increased by the measures which were adopted by Mr. North to place the Malay corps on a respectable footing; and at last assumed so serious an appearance, as to induce Mr. North to send a confidential native agent for the purpose of demanding an explanation from the first

* The Marquis Wellesley, in 1798, urged his Majesty's ministers to retain the Cape of Good Hope and Ceylon in case of any treaty hereafter. Respecting the island, he said:—"The possession of Ceylon is universally held to be indispensable to the preservation both of our power on the continent, and of our commerce on the seas of India. I am persuaded that the possession of Ceylon, either in the hands of France or of her bond-slave Holland, would enable the French interest in India to rise, within a very short period, to a degree of formidable strength never before possessed by them. On this subject I find no difference of opinion in the minds of any persons acquainted with India."—(*Despatches of the Marquis Wellesley*, when governor-general of India, vol. i., p. 31.) The advice thus given was followed; but a similar suggestion, with regard to the Cape of Good Hope, was rejected: that colony was nominally restored to the Dutch, but really given over to the French at the definitive treaty of peace signed at Amiens 27th March, 1802; and its recapture by England in 1806 became an urgent necessity.

† At the period of the British occupation, the form of government at the court of Kandy, and the administration of the laws, are thus described:—"Before a king dies, he girds his eldest prince with the golden sword, and delivers to him the government, in presence of the two chief *adigaars* (ministers) and the four greatest *dessaves*, and the heads of five provinces (Udonoowana, Iattanooway, Haraseppattoo, Toonpanaha, and Doombara), after which each of them ought to kneel down before the prince. In case of their refusing, the father encourages them by kneeling himself down. Should the king die without having appointed a successor, the priests of four temples, the two *adigaars*, and four of the chief *dessaves*, after consultation, nominate the next heir to it, invite the inhabitants of the aforesaid five provinces to inform them of it, and with their consent they deliver to the new-selected king the government, with the devotion above-mentioned. His Majesty goes hereafter, with the people and priests, to the three temples (Wishnoo, Kadraganay, and Patieny), to offer there the necessary sacrifices. From hence he proceeds to Natedivalley, where the greatest sacrifices are to be performed, and his instalment as king takes place. He himself puts on his head the diadem, and girds himself with the golden sword: after this, he goes with his whole suite to the principal temple (Dalledagay); pays, according to

adigaar or minister of the government of Kandy.* In consequence of this communication, the first adigaar requested Mr. North to grant him an audience at Setaraca, on the frontiers, as he had something to communicate which was of the greatest importance to the British government.

"Accordingly an interview took place on the 5th of January, 1800, between Mr. North and the first adigaar. Previously to this interview, Mr. North had reason to think, from the information of the native agent whom he had deputed to Kandy, that the object of the first adigaar was to establish an English military force in Kandy, and to pay for it a tribute in areka-nut and other productions, to the British government; and that this military force was

to protect his own power, together with that of his nominal master the King of Kandy, in whose name it was supposed the first adigaar intended to continue to govern the kingdom. At the interview, however, on the 5th of January, 1800, the first proposal made by the adigaar to Mr. North, was to *depose* the reigning king, who had been placed on the throne by the first adigaar, in direct violation of the laws of the kingdom of Kandy. This proposal was rejected in the most positive manner; as Mr. North, very justly, did not think himself warranted to join in a conspiracy against a prince in perfect amity with the British government, and who had been recognised by Mr. North as the legitimate sovereign, on the grounds of his being in possession of the throne on

custom, the usual worship, receiving the blessings and good wishes from the four high priests; ascends the throne, and passes about a whole month in festivals. If there be no prince to succeed, one of the nearest relations of the royal family is chosen, and if still in his minority, the kingdom is managed by the adigaar, and he educates the prince by wise instructions and admonitions till he arrives to his majority. If the king be without issue, and no prince of the royal blood exists, a prince is brought over from Madura, and appointed to be king. Some state affairs are settled by the king alone, and some by conferring with his ministers: it often happens that the latter, influenced by envy and malice, or bribery and avarice, gives such information to the king, that the guilty are acquitted, and the innocent sentenced to the death or other punishments. If a decree shall be made, the two adigaars, the four great dessaves, the two mohottiaars of Atappatoo court, and the rataralas ought to be previously consulted. Without the consent of the ministers and dessaves, the king cannot declare war of his own accord. Office is granted only by the king, consulting first with the two adigaars. If by the above-mentioned members of the council any affair is determined and represented to the king, he either accepts it and gives his sanction, or rejects it if it does not agree with his opinion. If a subject wishes to petition the king, and cannot get it delivered by the adigaars, he must address himself to the public treasury, or in a lesser court in the village, on which the chief of it is obliged to represent his cause to the king; and if any should suffer injustice, he climbs upon a tree next to the palace, and cries so loud that the king may hear it, bid him to come down, and inquiring into his case, may grant him relief. When the adigaars, the four great dessaves, the mahamohottiaar, the mohottiaar of the Atappatoo, and the rataralas have examined any cause, and represent to the king their opinion that a guilty person is deserving death, he is either killed or punished in another way, and banished to a miserable place. When the king goes out in state, he is attended by high officers, with elephants, and the mohandaram of the stable, with the horses. Various flags are borne—one with a crescent moon, another with a lion, another with a goose; also white and red flags, appropriate to particular districts; and music of various descriptions. Four times in the month or more, the priests are obliged to give instruction in their religion, and such books are also given to the king. He who is well acquainted with the principles of the law, and exercises himself therein, may be employed, without regarding the caste, as priest and high priest; but to be the chief of one of the four temples, or the highest priest, one of the caste of Bellaby is necessary. If priests advance to the station of high priest, they are called before twelve of the latter, who are well versed in religious law; and when they have been examined, and have read and explained some of their sacred books, the most able one is confirmed by the senior high priest; after which an oath is taken from him. Neither priests nor high priests are allowed to marry. Those priests who do not observe the religious laws, act against the duties of their priesthood, and keep concubines, are neither honoured nor trusted, but are regarded as devils, and despised as enemies of the

law. Formerly there was only one adigaar, called Pallegampuha; but the king, Rajah Singa, intending to go to Colombo with the said adigaar to turn out the Portuguese, placed a second to take care of the court, and intrusted to him the management of the half of his kingdom. From that period there were two adigaars, who are equal in rank. There are four great dessaves; viz., one of the four Korles, another of the seven Korles; the third of Dowry, and the fourth of Matuoley. The other dessaves enjoy the privileges granted to the four great dessaves, only in their districts, but nowhere else. The four latter are authorised to be preceded by the beating of tom-toms, in both the Upper and Lower districts. Both the superior and inferior dessaves have the power of punishing the guilty, according to their offences, in different manners; but not to kill or torture. The two adigaars are permitted to make use of whips, which is a particular honour. When they retire from the palace to the foot of the mountain, the other side of the river Mahavalliganga, from thence the beating of tom-toms is permitted; everywhere else in the dessavinees they may use both insignia of rank—viz., whips and tom-toms. Everything is determined and settled according to the law laid down in several old books. An adulterous woman may be deserted by the husband, either arbitrarily, or with a previous knowledge of the dessaves; but if a husband is guilty of the same crime, his wife cannot separate from him as she pleases, but must address herself to the judges: a reconciliation is allowed. A man deserting his wife is sentenced by the dessaves to give the half of his estate to her; but if the wife deserts him, she gets nothing, except the children issued from him. A man may keep concubines besides his lawful wife. [The shameful practice of polyandria is thus sanctioned.] Two or three brothers may keep one and the same wife, if they agree upon it. In case four or five brothers live together, and a bride is brought for one of them, whom he does not like, another may choose her. None of a low caste can be raised to a higher one; a male of the high class may be reduced to a lower one. Delinquents of the nobility are beheaded; but others are hanged, killed by elephants, put on a pike, or punished after their crimes. A testator disposes of his property by writing in presence of witnesses. The estates of intestates devolve on the children; after them on the brothers; after which follow the other nearest relations; but if there be none existing, it falls to the public treasury."—[MS. prepared for Ceylon government, and found among Lord Wellesley's papers.]

* "This event took place about the year 1798. The account given by the adigaar was, that the country had formerly been inhabited by *devils*, who had been expelled by *Sorodia*. From this period, a regular succession of kings of the Singhalae race followed for ages. These, in return, were afterwards expelled by the accession to the throne of Kandy of the race of Malabar kings. About the year 1781, the adigaar's brother, who had also been adigaar, placed on the throne a prince of Malabar extraction; and, in 1798, the existing adigaar, in the midst of civil discord, succeeded in obtaining the throne for the reigning prince, although he had no legal pretensions to it, and was in fact illegitimate."

Mr. North's accession to the government of Ceylon. But although Mr. North did not think himself justified in contributing, in any degree, to the deposition of the King of Kandy, he was not disposed to insist on that prince's retaining any large portion of authority in his dominions, and conceived 'that he provided much more effectually for the king's security and happiness, by placing him under the protection of a British military force, than by leaving him in the hands of a daring and ambitious minister, or of a faction which had proclaimed him an illegitimate usurper.'

"Mr. North, therefore, felt no hesitation to promise the adigaar support 'in obtaining all authority *short of royalty* in the country, in case he should be able to prevail on the king to ask for a British subsidiary force, and to put himself and his country under the British protection.' The motive for inducing Mr. North to take this resolution, was the hope which he entertained that the measure was the best mode of ascertaining the extent of the minister's power, which he had reason to think was greatly weakened. 'If he (the first adigaar) succeeds,' Mr. North says, 'in inducing his majesty to make such an application, it may, I think, be complied with without hesitation; for it would prove either that his power is so great, that the establishment and recognition of it would take nothing from the king of what he really possesses; or, that they both are in such a state of alarm, that they would willingly sacrifice their independence for their safety. If he should not succeed, it will prove that his power is no longer what it was, and that the king is in a state of independence in his own dominions, which we have no right to diminish, and which it would be both impolitic and unjust to attack.' Mr. North, in this conference, informed the first adigaar of his intention to send General Macdowall as ambassador to the King of Kandy, with valuable presents. Major-general Macdowall was instructed to negotiate the treaty with the King of Kandy, founded on the principles stated in the conference which took place between the first adigaar and himself on the 5th of January, 1800, to which the first adigaar had agreed, and which he had promised to carry into effect. Another important object of the embassy was to obtain a perfect knowledge of the situation of the court of Kandy, which was essential to the improvement of our general interests, as well as to prevent the dangers which it was apprehended would attend the implicit observance, on the part of Mr. North, of the directions of the first adigaar, whose intentions Mr. North 'knew to be atrocious, and such as he could never abet.'

"General Macdowall arrived on the frontier of Kandy on the 20th of March, 1800, where, according to appointment, he met the first adigaar, accompanied by two officers of inferior rank, and by a great number of followers. On the 8th of April, General Macdowall arrived at Gumarora, and, on the 9th, had his first audience of the King of Kandy. He was received with every demonstration of respect and kindness, and soon after his audience entered on the subject of his mission. The treaty proposed by General Macdowall embraced the following objects:—1. The preservation of the reigning king: 2. The permanent establishment of a British force in the Kandian territories: 3. The obtaining some commercial advantages: 4. The prevention of immediate bloodshed and future civil war, by the delivery of the chiefs of the persecuted party into

the hands of the British government: and, 5. The procuring the administration of the revenues of the country, or at least such powers as might prevent the continuance of the wretched system which had hitherto prevailed, to the detriment of its natural resources.

"The treaty, however, was rejected by the ministers of the court of Kandy, who proposed a counter-project, nearly similar to one which had been formerly offered to the government of Madras. The general refused to enter on the discussion of the counter-project, and demanded his audience of leave. The ministers then consented to the proposed treaty, with the exception of the article which provided for the establishment of a considerable body of troops near the town of Kandy. They wished to reduce the number to 400; but, as such a modification was little calculated to afford security to the British territories, General Macdowall declined the proposal, and quitted the town of Kandy. The ministers also rejected three modified proposals from Mr. North; and the negotiation here terminated.

"The whole of these transactions were officially submitted to the notice of the supreme government of India, who have stated their sentiments on the subject in a letter under date the 28th of May, 1800. The governor-general in council observes:—'We agree in opinion with your excellency respecting the advantages which would result to the British interests in India from establishing a subsidiary force at Kandy, whenever a favourable opportunity may offer for that purpose. At the same time, we highly approve the motives which induced your excellency to reject the adigaar's unwarrantable proposal for the deposition of the King of Kandy. The other objects which your excellency proposes to obtain by the embassy of Major-general Macdowall, and which are detailed in the project of the treaty transmitted with your letter of the 15th of March, are certainly important, and many of them extremely desirable. We confess, however, that we entertain considerable doubts, not only of the sincerity, but of the power of the adigaar to aid your excellency in the accomplishment of the proposed plan. Under circumstances of such delicacy, we trust that your excellency's prudence and discretion will be exerted to avoid any step which might eventually expose the British character to the hazard of any invidious reflection, or might provoke discontent or jealousy at the court of Kandy.'

Mr. North was amiable and learned, but unfit for the position in which he had been placed, and in the interior he injudiciously persisted in interfering in the political intrigues carried on.

The Marquis Wellesley, as governor-general of India, advised the governor of Ceylon to pause in the proceedings contemplated with regard to Kandy; and in private letters which I found among his lordship's papers, the same caution is reiterated. Thus, on 28th November, 1800:—'My dear North,—I have this moment received your official despatch of the 28th October, and I lose not a moment in acknowledging it in this private form, for the purpose of urging you in the most earnest

S CEYLON RENDERED INDEPENDENT OF INDIAN GOVERNMENT—1802.

manner to avoid, by all possible means, any rupture with the court of Kandy.*

* * * *

"I am, &c.,

"WELLESLEY."

In 1802, the administration in Ceylon was rendered entirely independent of the supreme government of India; and on 29th January, 1803, Mr. North assembled a force for the purpose of invading the Kandian territories, the king having refused to accept the terms proposed by the governor, on the plea of avoiding further collisions, and preventing incursions on the British frontiers. One portion of the army, under Major-general Macdowall, marched from Colombo; another from Trincomalee, under Colonel Barbut: the whole, amounting to about 3,000 men, were to unite on the banks of the Mahavillagunga, a river which nearly surrounds Kandy, at a distance of three miles from the city. (The ensuing details are given in small type to economise space.)

Hostilities commenced on the 19th of February, by the attack and capture, by Colonel Logan of the 51st regiment, of two strong posts called Gallegederah and Giriagamme. On the same day, Colonel Barbut, of his Majesty's 73rd regiment, advanced with a detachment towards Mahavillagunga river, the banks of which, together with the village of Wallapoola and the neighbouring hills, were occupied by the enemy in force. A few shots from two mortars and one 6-pounder soon, however, compelled the Kandians to retire, and the detachment crossed the river on the morning of the 20th of February, and took possession of the village of Wallapoola, situated within one English mile and a-half of the town of Kandy.

General Macdowall marched into Kandy on the evening of the 20th, and found it totally deserted, the king having left it with the adigaar on the 19th of February, 1803, and removed all the treasure from the palace, and the inhabitants from their houses. Prior to his flight, the king caused the magazines to be blown up, set fire to his palace, and to the principal temples, and then retired into the distant province of Ouya to the south-west. The fugitive monarch refused to accept the terms previously offered him, and did not even prepare to negotiate with General Macdowall; but, after the delay of a fortnight, answered Mr. North's letter to him, without taking the least notice of the conditions which had been formally proposed for his acceptance. "The abdicated throne" was thereupon offered to, and accepted by, Prince Budha Sawmy, who would have succeeded to it on the demise of the last king, if the intrigues of the adigaar had not intruded the present fugitive prince, in the intention of deposing him to make way for himself. Colonel Barbut was in consequence detached, soon after the capture of Kandy, to Trin-

comalee, for the purpose of escorting him to that capital. The inauguration was witnessed by but few of the inhabitants of Kandy; and his whole suite, exclusive of the British force, did not exceed fifty followers. The detachments sent out in pursuit of the former king met with some losses, and failed in effecting his capture.

About this period, a dreadful endemial fever broke out in the interior of the island, and deprived the English of several valuable public officers, and a very large portion of the European troops employed in the Kandian territories. This most fatal malady appeared under the form of a violent bilious remittent, and was attended with nearly the same symptoms in all cases. The extent of the disease will be fully comprehended from the following facts. The 51st regiment, which marched from Colombo 560 strong, lost before its return one-fifth of the men, besides having 170 men sick in the hospital. A detachment of the 65th regiment, consisting of one captain, three subalterns, and eighty men, employed in keeping open the communication with Kandy, and covering a dépôt of stores and provisions, lost twenty-seven men, besides having fifty in the hospital: of the four officers, one died, and two returned dangerously ill. The native troops, however, did not suffer in an equal proportion; and it is a curious circumstance, that a journey of eight or ten miles from the sea-coast should lead to a country where the influence of this endemial disease is so powerful as to affect almost every European constitution exposed to its influence.

The circumstances that immediately followed the capture of the town of Kandy are imperfectly known:† but a treaty was entered into between the new king and Mr. North, for the restoration of peace and the general security of the inhabitants of the island. By this arrangement, it was stipulated that restoration should be made to Mootoo Sawmy of the town of Kandy, and all the possessions dependent on the crown of Kandy, then occupied by the British troops, excepting the province of the seven Korles, the two hill forts of *Giriagamme* and *Gallegederah*, and a line of land across the Kandian territories, sufficient to form a direct road from Colombo to Trincomalee, which province, forts, &c. were ceded to his Britannic Majesty in perpetual sovereignty. Provision was made for the identification of the interests of the British government with those of Budha Sawmy, the former party engaging to recognise their *protégé* as the legitimate sovereign of Kandy, so soon as he should have assumed that title with the usual solemnities, and they consented to maintain a British subsidiary force for the preservation of his authority, whenever it might be required. The remaining articles provided for the future intercourse between the subjects of the two states, for the regulation of the internal duties and commerce, the safety and maintenance of the king lately on the throne, and for the residence at Kandy, whenever it might be required, of a public minister on the part of the British government. After the conclusion of this treaty, Mr. North determined to hold a conference with the two adigaars of Kandy, for the purpose of procuring their consent to the establishment of a secure and permanent peace. In consequence of this

* Foreseeing the danger which might arise from Ceylon being placed beyond the control of the supreme authority in India, which would, however, have to furnish men and money for its defence, Lord Wellesley strongly deprecated the plan of making a comparatively small island independent of the adja-

cent general government: patronage, however, was sought by the minister of the day, and cogent arguments were unheeded. (*Despatch* to Lord Hobart, 23rd November, 1803; *Despatches*, vol. iii., p. 476.)

† Sir J. E. Tennent's new work on Ceylon elucidates several matters hitherto unexplained.

resolution, Mr. North left Colombo on the 28th of April, and reached Dombaderra on the 1st of May. On the 3rd of May a conference took place at Mr. North's bungalow,* in which it was proposed that the adigaars and the principal nobles of Kandy should become parties to the treaty lately concluded between the British government and the prince Budha Sawmy, on certain additional conditions, which, after some discussion, were finally agreed to by the adigaars, and sealed, signed, and delivered by the respective parties on the following day.

This convention stipulated that the new king, Budha Sawmy,† should deliver over the administration of the province belonging to the crown of Kandy to the first adigaar, with the title of "grand prince" during the term of his natural life: that he should reside at Jaffnapatam, or in such other part of the British territories as might be agreed upon between Budha Sawmy and the British government; that the first adigaar should engage to pay an annual sum of 90,000 rix dollars for the maintenance of Budha Sawmy; and that for the better payment of this sum, as well as for the allowance proposed to be granted to the king lately on the throne of Kandy, the first adigaar should deliver to the British government, in the course of every year, a certain gratuity of areka-nut (20,000 ammonams), taken at a specified valuation (six British dollars per ammonam), the price of which should be paid to the agents of the first adigaar by the British government, in coined copper, or in such other articles as might be agreed upon between the parties; in which case, the British government agreed to charge itself with the payment of the allowances (about 40,000 rix dollars) stipulated for Mootoo Sawmy, and for the king lately on the throne: that the first adigaar should cede in perpetuity to the British government the village and district of Gungavelle (now called Fort Macdowall), in exchange for the hill fort of Girigamme, which the British government agreed to cede again to the first adigaar: that all the princes and princesses of the royal family then in confinement, should be set at liberty, and be allowed to retire with their property wherever they might think proper; and that a general amnesty should be proclaimed, on both sides, to all who might have supported or opposed the claims of Budha Sawmy in the late or any former contest: finally, that the preceding articles should be carried into effect as soon as the prince lately on the throne of Kandy should be delivered into the hands of the British government; and that until that event should take place, a truce and cessation of hostilities should continue between all the contracting parties.

This truce continued until the month of June, when it was broken by the treachery of the Kandians, who, under the first adigaar, did not scruple to avail them-

* It was subsequently ascertained that the adigaar had planned to seize the governor, and was only prevented by the timely arrival of Colonel Barbut with a strong detachment of Malay soldiers.

† On account of the inertness of his own character, and the timidity of his friends, Mr. North says—"If he consents by his own signature to exchange a turbulent power, which he never could fully obtain, nor securely exercise, for the peaceable enjoyment of high power and an affluent income, we have no reason to oppose his wishes."

‡ The advantage of this arrangement was as follows:—The areka was to be sold to the British government at six rix dollars per ammonam. That article, however, pays a duty, on exportation, of ten rix dollars, and is sold at Colombo, before the payment of that duty, at from fourteen to

selves of the earliest opportunity to make war upon the British garrison at Kandy. Colonel Barbut was seized with fever while attending the governor at Dombaderra, and died at Colombo on the 21st of April. General Meddowall returned to Kandy on the 23rd of May—was similarly attacked, and proceeded to Colombo on the 11th of June, leaving Major Davie, of the Ceylon regiment, in command; but the major was devoid of energy, and utterly unfit for such a duty. On 1st April, the Kandian garrison consisted of 300 Europeans and 700 Malays, and Indian artillery, besides a considerable number of sick in hospital. When the siege commenced (23rd June), the British force consisted of seventeen European officers, twenty European soldiers, 250 Malays, 140 gun Lascars, and 150 sick soldiers in hospital, of whom 120 were English, belonging to H.M. 19th regiment.

Mr. North had already made preparations, towards the middle of June, for evacuating Kandy, and a detachment of Malays was on its march to that place from Trincomalee, with a number of coolies to bring away the sick and wounded. The governor of Ceylon had also agreed to a proposal from the adigaars to relinquish Kandy, provided the garrison might be permitted to retire unmolested. Accordingly, Major Davie, the commander above-mentioned, vacated Kandy, under a capitulation with the first adigaar, on the 24th of June. He was permitted to retire with his arms and ammunition, and was promised every mark of attention.‡

The remainder of this distressing statement may be given as recorded in the sworn depositions of Mahommed Gani, a free Malay, and late servant to Ensign Robert Barry, of the Malay corps in Ceylon, who deposed—

"That he went to Kandy from Trincomalee, in February last, as a servant to Ensign Barry. About four o'clock on the morning of Friday, the 24th of June, the Kandians began to fire upon the palace where the British troops were quartered. About five o'clock, the Malays in the service of the King of Kandy, headed by Sangulyo, their chief, attempted to force the palace. Sangulyo entered, and was seized by Lieutenant Blackney, of the 19th regiment, and struggling with him, they both fell on the ground, when Sangulyo, with his kris,§ stabbed Lieutenant Blackney near the eye, of which he died instantly; and while Sangulyo was still on the ground, Lieutenant-adjutant Plenderleath thrust a bayonet through his body, and a soldier gave him also a stab, of which Sangulyo died on the spot.—That the second in command of the Kandian Malays, who followed Sangulyo in the attack, was shot without the door of the palace. These deaths eighteen rix dollars per ammonam. The clear gain to government, therefore, is about twenty rix dollars per ammonam; and, on the whole quantity (viz., 20,000 ammonams), is 360,000 rix dollars, after paying the specified allowance of 40,000 rix dollars.

§ The governor of Ceylon, on learning the weak state of the Kandian garrison, ordered a native regiment from Colombo; but the soldiers were unable to march for want of coolies (attendants to carry baggage), who had suffered much in the campaign, and were deterred by the Kandians from re-entering the British service. The strongly fortified posts of Girigamme and Gallegderah were surprised and taken by the Kandians, whereby communication with Colombo was intercepted.

|| Memorandum drawn up from commissariat documents.
¶ A kris is a long knife or dagger worn by the Malays.

frightened the Kandian Malays, and they retreated. In this attack the adjutant of the 19th regiment was wounded in the thigh, and two Malay soldiers were killed, and one man of the artillery was also killed.—That, after this, no attack was made by the Kandians near the palace; but they continued in great numbers, all around upon the hills, firing on the garrison with their grasshopper guns, of which the shot reached the palace, until about two or three o'clock in the afternoon, when the British officers, having consulted together, hoisted a white flag, on which the firing ceased on both sides. Many of the Kandians then approached, and Major Davie and the Malay captain, Nouradin, went out and conversed with them; on which the Kandians who conversed with Major Davie, went away to speak to the adigaar, who was at a considerable distance; and when they returned, Major Davie and Nouradin went also to the adigaar; and when they returned, preparations were made by the whole garrison to leave Kandy, except such of the sick as could not walk, who were to remain behind; the adigaar having promised (as the deponent was told) to take care of the sick, and send them down to Colombo when they could be removed. Accordingly, between five and six o'clock, the whole garrison that could move marched out with their arms, and, without molestation, came to the banks of the river on the road towards Trincomalee, about two miles from Kandy. Here they stopped all night, as the river was not fordable, and no boats to cross it. On the morning of Saturday they began to cut bamboos to make rafts; but, from the rapidness of the current in the river, they could not get a rope taken across it. About seven o'clock it was observed that Kandians in numbers began to assemble near them, and many also on the other side of the river. About mid-day some Kandians of the rank of Arratzies and Canganis came from Kandy, and spoke with Major Davie, telling him that the king had been angry with the adigaar for allowing the garrison to go away, and had thrown him into prison on that account; but, if they would give up Mootoo Sawmy, the king would send them boats and every sort of assistance to cross the river and proceed to Trincomalee. Major Davie said he would not give Mootoo Sawmy unless they brought a written order from the king to the above effect. Upon this the Kandians went away, and returned not long after, and again discoursed with Major Davie, who talked with Mootoo Sawmy, and delivered him up to the Kandians who were sent to take charge of him, who conducted him away towards Kandy. About four or five o'clock in the afternoon, some Kandians came, and seemed to make some preparations for enabling the troops to pass the river; but night came on before anything sufficient was completed, and they went away, promising to return in the morning with boats. On the morning of Sunday, the Kandians, armed, again assembled in numbers near them; but no boats or other preparations were made by them to pass the river. Captain Humphreys had, however, succeeded in fixing a rope on the other side. About eleven A.M. some Kandians came out from Kandy, and told Major Davie that it was the king's order that all the garrison should again return into Kandy, without arms; to which, if they did not consent willingly, they would all be killed. On this, Major Davie ordered the troops to ground their arms, which was done; and the officers also gave up their swords and pistols, and all proceeded towards Kandy: who

near that town, a crowd of Kandians were drawn up, leaving room for the English, Malays, &c., to pass. When in the middle of this line of Kandians, a Malay of the King of Kandy came up and ordered them to halt, saying it was the king's order that the English Malays should march on before; on which all the Malays (except Captain Nouradin and his brother, a lieutenant, and the deponent, who attended his master, and had refused to go on before) were separated from the English officers and troops. When the Malays were separated and out of sight, a mohottiaer came from the adigaar (who was at this time in sight, accompanied by several other chiefs), and called Major Davie and Captain Nouradin to come and speak with him, which they did; and, after conversing with them, Captain Nouradin's brother was sent for, and all three were sent on into Kandy. After this a man came, with a sword in his hand, from the adigaar, and said that all the rest of the officers were to go and speak with him; which they all did. When they came before the adigaar, he inquired what was the rank of each. When this was explained, Captain Humphreys and Captain Rumley were ordered away into Kandy under a guard of Kandians. There now remained Mr. Holloway, Lieutenant Phantam, Lieutenant Ormsby, Ensign Barry, Lieutenant Mercer, Ensign Smith, with two other officers, whose names the deponent does not know, who were all seized in consequence of the adigaar's order, and separated. The deponent wished to follow his master, but was prevented by the Kandians, who now put all the officers seized as above-mentioned to death.

“*Question.* How do you know that they were put to death?—*Answer.* I saw the mangled bodies of some of them lying on the ground, and I understood from common report that the others were also murdered.

“*Question.* When the garrison marched out of Kandy, as you have mentioned, how many men were there do you think?—*Answer.* I think about thirty Europeans, including the artillerymen; 300 Malays, sick and well; twelve royal Lascars, and thirty pioneers.

“*Question.* What became of the European soldiers when the officers were murdered, as you have mentioned?—*Answer.* At the time the officers were murdered, the Kandians fell upon them, and killed them also; and some of the Bengal Lascars and pioneers were also killed along with them, and some got off into the wood.

“*Question.* What became of the sick that were left in the hospital?—*Answer.* I heard that their brains were beat out with stones.”

The foregoing document too truly set forth the facts of the case: the sick were stoned to death; the troops, at the orders of Major Davie, finding they could not cross the river, and faint after two days' fasting, grounded their arms, and were taken aside in small numbers to a sloping bank, and there all butchered, except the Malay corps, as the king wished to induce them to enter his service. One English soldier (Corporal Barnsley) whose head had been nearly severed from his body, was thrown down the hill, and lay some time among the dead.

but escaped by swimming across the river, and making his way to Fort Macdowall. Mootoo Sawmy and five relatives were surrendered by the British to the infuriated king, and instantly massacred; one of the temporary monarch's followers (a deserter) was impaled alive, and eight of the unfortunate prince's attendants were deprived of their noses and ears. Major Davie, captains Rumby and Humphreys, and a sub-assistant-surgeon were not slain; the sub-assistant escaped in September, the two captains died of sickness, and Davie lived a prisoner until his death, about the year 1810. The Malay prisoners were kept for some time; several entered the service of the king, but escaped ultimately, having failed in the endeavour to carry him off to the British. Their two native officers refused to join the Malay corps in the Kandian employ, in which their brother held a command,—they were beheaded, and their bodies thrown to the jackals. The small British detachment at Fort Macdowall, on hearing of the proceedings at Kandy, evacuated the place, and marched to Trincomalee. Ensign Grant bravely held the post of Dombaderria, in the seven Korles, until relieved by a force from Colombo. Thus ended this disastrous expedition—undertaken, like the Afghan war, without just cause or adequate means, and conducted without ability.

The Kandians, elated with success, attacked different outposts on the British frontier, but were in every instance repulsed; the king advanced with a large force to Hangwelle, within eighteen miles of Colombo, which was garrisoned by only one hundred men, who behaved so well that the Kandians were routed, leaving 270 bodies on the field of battle, while the British had only two wounded. Many Malays and gun Lascars escaped from the enemy, and retired to their respective corps. Captain Johnson, with 305 men, penetrated to

Kandy, passed through the capital, and then fought his way for 130 miles to Trincomalee. The maritime provinces were cleared of the invaders, and all remained quiescent until 1812, when Pilime Talawa, the treacherous adigaar who had been the main instrument in the tragedy of 1803, having failed in a plot to assassinate the tyrant, was himself, together with his nephew and six inferior chiefs, put to death by the king. The second adigaar, Eheylapola, succeeded Pilime Talawa; but two years afterwards fled for his life to Colombo, leaving his wife, children, relations, and adherents at the mercy of his sovereign, by whom they were massacred in the most cruel manner.* The sanguinary character of the king now fully developed itself: the second high priest was executed, various chiefs† beheaded, and ten British subjects (traders) so tortured, that only three survived to reach the English territories. Sir Robert Brownrigg saw the time had arrived for dethroning the despot and assuming the dominion of the whole island; and to that effect measures were judiciously planned and well carried out. War was declared 10th of Jan., 1815; the principal chiefs joined the British forces, who entered Kandy on the 14th of February: on the 18th, the king was captured in the mountains of Donobora.‡ On the 2nd of March the native chiefs proclaimed his dethronement, and their allegiance to the British monarch.

After the deposition of the king, the Kandian nobles were retained in their respective offices, and the people left, to a great extent, under their rule; the chiefs and the Buddhist priests soon began to chafe against a foreign government, which overlooked and controlled them. A rebellion was organised, extensively and secretly; many head-men and leaders (including Eheylapola, whose wife and children had been destroyed as below described), while

* The wife of Eheylapola, and her four young children (the eldest eleven years of age, and the youngest at the breast), were brought to Kandy; the children were beheaded in front of the queen's apartments in the palace; each of the heads put in a rice mortar, and the mother, under fear of disgraceful tortures, was compelled to pound the mangled faces of her children,—the milk in the mouth of the babe actually mingling with its life-blood. After this fiendish act, the mother, who conducted herself with singular fortitude, was thrown into a lake with a heavy stone round her neck; three female companions shared her untimely fate; another narrowly escaped being impaled.—(See Forbes' *Ceylon*.)

† Petty chiefs are designated "Head-men."

‡ The ex-king, Sri Wikrema Rajah Singa, was removed to Vellore fortress, in the Madras presidency,—received a large annual pension, and died there of dropsy, 30th January, 1832, æt 52. Major Forbes says—"His features were handsome, his figure manly, and his general appearance dignified; but the qualities of his mind appear to have been a compound of the meanest with the most violent passions, without one redeeming virtue to weigh against selfishness, cruelty, and cowardice: he was equally destitute of any amiable quality which could excite compassion for his fate, even among those who had served about his person, or had been advanced by his power."—(*Eleven Years in Ceylon*, i., 477.)

still professing allegiance to British authority, favoured and aided the rebels, and sanctioned the setting up of a pretender who was really a low-caste man, and had been a priest, but who was now alleged to be a scion of the deposed royal family. Mr. Wilson, of the Ceylon civil service, was killed at Welasse: the insurrection spread rapidly through the Kandian provinces; a protracted warfare ensued at the numerous detached military posts scattered throughout the country; the troops were harassed for nine months by incessant marches through a mountainous and wooded district, in pursuit of the rudely armed population, who followed the leading of their chiefs; and upwards of a thousand of our soldiers died of disease: few fell in actual combat with an enemy who was often heard, but seldom seen. Our government, annoyed at the conduct of the chiefs, contemplated abandoning the interior; but disunion among the conspirators led to the exposure of the fraud of setting up a pretender: the insurgents gradually dispersed; their leaders were captured; two were beheaded, and a few, including Eheylapola, were banished to the Mauritius.

The paramount authority of the chiefs was now set aside. British officers, civil and military, were placed in the different districts to collect the revenue and administer justice; and the inferior head-men, instead of being nominated by their chief, received the appointment direct from government. Sir Edward Barnes, who succeeded Sir Robert Brownrigg as governor, spared no exertions or expense to form good roads throughout the interior: mountains were turned into valleys, tunnels cut, viaducts constructed, substantial bridges erected, every province rendered readily accessible by carriage-ways, available at all seasons;—and the Singhalese experienced the blessings of peace.

In 1831, Sir Wilmot Horton, who had distinguished himself as an advocate for colonisation, and who had been under-secretary of state in the colonial department, was appointed governor. During the ensuing year, a commission of inquiry sent from England investigated the state of the island, and suggested various amendments which were carried out, the most important of which was the abolition of compulsory service—a custom which the Kandian government had enacted. Major Forbes says, “the native inhabitants passed in a day from a state more bitter than sh-

very to the most perfect freedom.”* A charter providing for the due administration of justice by supreme, district, and circuit courts, followed this righteous act; trial by jury was adopted; every situation was thrown open to the competition of the Singhalese, and three gentlemen, natives of Ceylon, were appointed members of her Majesty's Legislative Council, on a footing of perfect equality with the other unofficial European members.

In 1835, several chiefs and priests endeavoured to organise another insurrection: it was proposed to poison and massacre all the isolated Europeans residing in the interior. The conspiracy was early discovered; several of the ringleaders were tried before the supreme court for treason, by a jury composed of six Europeans, and seven Singhalese of high rank; the evidence against them was strong, but the prisoners were saved by their countrymen forming the majority. The chiefs who were unworthy of confidence were removed from office, the supporters of government rewarded, tranquillity was restored, and agriculture and commerce advanced with rapid strides, by means of the influx of British capital for investment in coffee planting, which became a mercantile mania, and led to much speculation. One more event, which occupied the attention of parliament for two years, requires notice in this unavoidably brief historic sketch.

Viscount Torrington was appointed governor in 1847. He states that when he arrived in Ceylon, he “found the finances in a most unsatisfactory state; the revenue declining and commerce sinking; and that unless some measure of relief were instantly adopted, the island would become an unproductive colony.” The net deficit for 1846 was £74,857. The financial and commercial measures proposed by the governor for the relief of the settlement, and adopted by the Executive and Legislative Councils, are thus set forth by his lordship when addressing the House of Peers on the subject, 1st April, 1851:—

“The export duties were abolished except the duty upon cinnamon, which was reduced by two-thirds, viz., from one shilling to fourpence the pound. The import duties were equalised, differential duties being abolished. Generally the taxes reduced were to be estimated at £12,163. As to the export duties, which were abolished, he (Lord Torrington) estimated the relief given to certain classes as follows:—to the cinnamon growers, about

* Vol. i., p. 57.

£15,000 per annum, estimated upon the crop of 1847; to the coffee growers, about £12,000 per annum; to the tobacco growers of the northern districts, the cocoa-nut planters, and native cultivators, about £3,000 per annum. The judicious removal of duties pressing upon production, and the general revival of trade and credit since the mercantile depression of 1847 and 1848, were concurrent with the improvement in the trade of the island, which was shown by the following returns:—In 1846 the coffee exported amounted in value to £328,791; in 1847, to £387,150; in 1848, to £456,624; in 1849, to £534,456. The increase in the first quarter of 1850, beyond that of 1849, was £122,797. The cinnamon exports of 1846 amounted to £40,165; and in 1849 to £73,387, while the increase in the first quarter of 1850, beyond that of 1849, was £4,081. The cocoa-nut oil exports, in 1846, amounted in quantity to 192,723 gallons, and in 1849 to 401,672 gallons; the increase in the first quarter of 1850, beyond that of 1849, being 8,693 gallons. The sale of salt also increased, in 1849, £4,580 beyond 1848; and the tolls increased in 1849, £2,348 beyond 1848. An amendment of the Stamp Act, which was found to be desirable in consequence of the increasing wants of the European community, was passed, and was found to be exceedingly beneficial to the island. A road ordinance had also been passed, with the unanimous concurrence of the Legislative Council, by which every male from the age of sixteen to sixty was required to contribute six days' labour to the improvement of the roads, or to pay a commutation tax not exceeding three shillings for the six days. This measure was carried through in 1849, and was found exceedingly beneficial to the island; for, while attempts were made to excite the people against it, they were so satisfied of the benefits resulting from it, that in many instances they gave double and even treble the time to it that they were obliged to do.*

A gun license, passed by the council, was deemed a salutary precautionary measure, as the Kandians had then probably 60,000 stand of servicable fire-arms.† A police-tax was also imposed on dogs, these animals having become by their numbers a great nuisance, and given rise to much barbarous slaughter, which was repugnant to the feelings of the Buddhists, who are averse to the taking of life.

The public expenditure was reduced, in 1847, £53,441; in 1848, £15,223; in 1849, £11,115 = total in three years, £78,780 less than in 1846; and in the first nine months of 1850, a further saving of £16,408 was effected, exclusive of that made in the road department. A revised tariff for the relief of trade was enacted, as the *Chamber of Commerce* declared, on 5th August, 1848, that "both the agricultural and commercial interests were labouring under the most severe depression."

* *Times*, 2nd April, 1851.

† When disarmed in 1818, they had no more than 10,000, of which two-thirds were matchlocks, and almost useless.

While reformatory measures were in progress, a rebellion broke out in some of the Kandian provinces in 1848. It was alleged that this insurrection was caused by the imposition of new and oppressive taxes. Such was not the case; a conspiracy had long been organising by the head-men and the Buddhist priests, with a view to the overthrow of the British government. As before, a pretender was set up as king of the Kandians, and solemnly crowned by a large body of deluded people at an ancient temple where the former rulers of the country received royal investiture. The confederates planned the simultaneous attack of the British posts scattered all over the territory, and garrisoned by about 800 men. At Kornegalle, the town was to be occupied while the troops were at church. Lord Torrington naturally felt solicitous, not only for the preservation of the military detachments, but for that of the numerous European coffee planters, with capital invested to the amount of two to three million sterling, whose crop for 1848 was valued at £748,311; the duty paid thereon in England amounting to £661,551. The governor, on receiving this alarming intelligence from Kandy, immediately consulted Quarter-master-general Frazer, who had been instrumental in suppressing the rebellion in 1818. That officer advised the proclamation of martial law, which was promptly done, and subsequently approved by the council. The insurrection was nipped in the bud; but unhappily some excesses were alleged to have been committed, and a Buddhist priest was hanged; but for these, it is asserted, the governor could not be held accountable; "martial law" simply meaning the law laid down by the military officer commanding, his will or authority being supreme. Viscount Torrington vindicated his proceedings, and set forth the motives which actuated his conduct, in a speech to the House of Peers on 1st April, 1851. It affords strong evidence of the exaggerated and, in many respects, utterly unjustifiable censure cast upon his lordship: he demonstrated that the cordial approval of the independent mercantile community, and European coffee planters and gentry, was given to his proceedings, and that his resignation was considered by them a grievous misfortune to the island. Some personal knowledge of the Kandian provinces,—of the credulous character of the people,—of the hopes cherished by the head-men for the recovery

of their despotic power, and of the ardent desire of the Buddhist priests (who dread the destruction of their religious influence) to extinguish British sway, leads me to the conclusion that measures of severity were indispensable, not merely for the maintenance of our supremacy, but for the protection of the lives of the Europeans, who would have been as ruthlessly and treacherously massacred by the rebels, as were the unarmed soldiers under Major Davie, on the confines of Kandy, in 1803. Furthermore, the contiguity of Ceylon to British India, rendered it necessary to adopt prompt and stringent measures for the suppression of any insurrectionary proceedings in the island. Lord Torrington left England with a good business character, acquired as chairman of a large railway company; and he maintained his reputation by the manner in which the finances of the colony were improved, and its commerce renovated, during his administration. Into the private correspondence, petty intrigues, calumnious statements, counter-statements, and misrepresentations which marked two years of acrimonious parliamentary warfare respecting the Ceylon rebellion, it is not my province to enter; they were of little interest except to those engaged therein.* Viscount Torrington candidly admitted, and feelingly deplored, before his compeers, the single act of indiscretion committed in reference to a private letter; and the position which his lordship has since maintained at the court of his sovereign, demonstrates that his character is unshaken. No event worthy of comment has since occurred in this island†

PHYSICAL FEATURES.—The position of Ceylon, near the southern extremity of India, and at the western entrance of the Bay of Bengal, is very advantageous, and

* It is said that the personal disputes among the officials were caused by the appointment of Sir James Emerson Tennent to the Ceylon secretaryship, direct from England, without his having passed through the successive grades of the island civil service. The exertions of Sir James for the reform of the financial system of the colony, which was much needed, also gave rise to secret and malevolent opposition from those who were affected by the retrenchments and salutary measures recommended by Sir James.

† The expenditure incurred by the parliamentary inquiry was very large; the printing and paper of the reports of the committee, cost £3,280; witnesses to 30th July, 1851, received £5,583, including Sir A. Oliphant, chief justice, £1,077; Sir J. E. Tennent, colonial secretary, £1,512; Captain Watson, £606; Lieutenant-colonel Braybrook, £554; J. Selby, £726; H. C. Selby, £625; Lieutenant Hen-

especially so to a maritime power possessing, as England does, sway over the adjacent shores. On the north-west the island is separated from the Coromandel coast by the Gulf of Manaar, which is about 120 miles from east to west and 100 from north to south. This gulf is divided from Palk's Strait, to the northward, by a ridge of rocky islets and sandbanks, about seventy miles in length, termed *Adam's Bridge*. The strait is about eighty miles wide, with a similar length. The distance from nearest point of Ceylon to that of the mainland is forty miles.‡ The shape is somewhat pyramidal, with the apex to the north: length, from Point Pedro to Dondera Head in the south, 275 miles; extreme breadth, from east to west, 140; average breadth, 100; circuit 750 miles; and area (including the islets on the north and north-west coast), nearly 25,000 square miles: lat. 6° to nearly 10° N., lon. 80° to 82° E.§ The coast line is flat, but rises from thence by successive terraces and low hills, towards an elevated plateau and mountainous region, sixty-two miles long by fifty-six broad, which occupies an area of about 3,600 square miles in the central southern portion of the island. The northern districts are very flat; and the coast on either shore, towards the extreme, is broken into verdant rocky islands and long narrow peninsulas; one termed Jaffnapatam. Another of these elongated and almost insulated strips of land, about forty miles long, named Navekarre, is situated about the middle of the west coast. In consequence of the lowness of the sea-shore, numerous salt-water lakes, of various extent and depth, are found in different parts, especially to the eastward about Batticaloa, where communication is maintained between the maritime districts by canals and lagoons. Small vessels from

derson, £390. Mr. Rhode, of the Madras civil service, appointed "to investigate the alleged forgery of documents purporting to be signed by Captain Watson, of the Ceylon rifles," received through the Madras authorities from England, £600. There were also various other disbursements.

‡ Ceylon is a central station for steam navigation in the eastern seas; the distances, in miles, to several places are as follows:—Trincomalee to Madras, 335; to Calcutta, 1,080; Colombo to Bombay, 1,175; Port-de-Galle to Aden, 2,650; thence England, *via* the Mediterranean and Marseilles, about 5,550; Galle to Algoa Bay (Cape of Good Hope), about 5,180; Galle to Singapore, 1,850; to Java Head, 2,060; to Swan River (Western Australia), 3,880 miles.

§ Round numbers are given to facilitate the remembrance of figures.

India may land their cargoes at Calpentyn, in the Gulf of Manaar, and have them conveyed by inland navigation to Colombo. From Chilaw to Putlam, thirty miles north of Caltura, there is an interior water communication for a distance of thirty miles. By these means considerable facilities are afforded for irrigation, rice cultivation, and the preparation of salt.*

MOUNTAINS.—Two main chains, distant from each other forty miles, have an east to west direction; the northern for about forty, the southern for about fifty miles: their western extremities are connected by irregular ranges, which stretch from north to south (Kornegalle to Ratnapoora) for about sixty miles; the eastern extremities of the parallel ridges approach towards Badulla and Binteune, leaving a distance of thirty-five miles without any marked series; the dip of the table-land being from east to west, and thence to the northward along the course of the Mahavillagunga river. Nearly in the centre of the plateau is an elevated crest, of about thirty-five miles from north-west to south-east, on which the beautiful sanitary station of Newera Ellia is situated. The greatest elevations are on the southern ridge: here the Horton Plains, which are about ten miles in extent, rise 7,000 feet above the sea; and three mountains (Saduhugalla, Lunugalla, and Totapella) ascend from thence to a height of seven to eight hundred feet. Adam's Peak, at the south-west part of the plateau, is 7,420; Newera Ellia plain, 6,210; and Pedrotallagalla Mount, which bounds it to the northward, is 8,280—feet above the sea. The heights, in English feet, of some of the principal mountains, &c., in the interior of Ceylon, are (L. by levelling; Δ by geodesical operations):—Upper Lake in Kandé, 1,678, L.; Matteá Pattanna, the hill above it, 3,192, Δ ; Ooraggalle, the rocky ridge of Hantanné to the southward of the town, 4,310, Δ ; Hoonassgiri Peak, 4,990, Δ ; "The Knuckles," a part of the same chain, 5,870, Δ ; highest point in the road leading through the Kaddooganawa Pass, 1,731, L.; Adam's Peak, 7,420, Δ ; Nammoon-nakoolle, near Badulla, 6,740, Δ ; Ambodluawa, near Gampalla, 3,540, Δ ; Pedrotallagalla, close to the Rest House of Newera Ellia, 8,280, Δ ; Diatalawé, near Hangoorauketté, 5,030, Δ ; Alloogalle, near Amoonapooré, 3,440, Δ .

* It is proposed to construct railroads in Ceylon, which would be useful for the transmission of produce.

RIVERS.—The rivers, as may be expected, are numerous; in fact, the whole island abounds with perennial mountain streams, rivulets, and rivers, the latter more numerous on the south and west than on the north-east. The principal are—the Mahavillagunga, which is navigable for boats and rafts during a great part of the year, from Trincomalee (where it falls into the sea) nearly as far as Kandy (in the centre of the island), where its course is impeded by a ledge of rocks; the Calanygunga, or Mutwal, is not inferior in importance to the former, and is the medium for much internal intercourse for fifty miles from Colombo to Ruanwelle; the Welawe and Gindora.

TOWNS AND FORTS.—*Colombo*, on the S.W. coast, 6° 57' N., 80° E., is the seat of government. The fortress, an irregular octagon, 1½ miles in circumference, is defended by eight bastions. One-half of the citadel is surrounded by the sea, the other half or land side, by a permanent inundation, which leaves only two narrow causeways of approach. There is a covert-way to the land fronts; but the glacis has never been finished. The revetments are of masonry generally composed of cabrook and lime-mortar, and are (with some exceptions) in tolerable repair. The outworks, from having a full moat in front, are imposing; the ditches are broad, well supplied with water from the inundation, and sufficiently deep. There are neither casemated barracks nor casemated storehouses within the fortress. The wells afford slightly brackish water, but the water fails on a continuance of dry weather. There are several powder magazines in the interior, the whole of which are in a serviceable state. This stronghold, which mounts about 300 pieces of cannon, overlooks the harbour, into which none but vessels of small burthen can enter; it cannot be said to command the roadstead, because vessels may anchor with safety from one to fifteen miles from the shore; it encloses within its lines of defence the residence of the governor, the head-quarters of the army, and the public offices. Although the plan of the body of the place does not conform to the science of more modern war, being of the days of Louis XIII., and according to the system of Chevalier de Ville; still, with good outworks, and casemated cover for troops' stores, constructed in the body of the fort, and the ramparts, &c., placed in an efficient state of repair, Co-

lombo, from its situation, and the great difficulty of approaching it by land, ought, under an intelligent and intrepid governor, to make a protracted defence; with naval support, the fortress could, when menaced by a land attack, receive succour from seaward. *Trincomalee*, on the east of the island, in $8^{\circ} 32' N.$, $81^{\circ} 17' E.$, is one of the finest harbours in the world. The physical aspect is that of a narrow neck of land, or isthmus, connecting the peninsula which juts out into the sea. To the west, this isthmus gradually expands into a plain of considerable extent, bounded on the south-east by a ridge of lofty mountains, on the north-west by low wooded hills, and on the west by the inner harbour, about one mile distant. *Fort Frederick* is situated on the east side of the peninsula, projecting into the Indian ocean. The works of defence consist of three irregular fronts, with a cavalier and a citadel; one front with an unfinished ravelin, occupies the narrow isthmus; the ditches of this front are dry: the two other fronts follow the direction of the ground. The cavalier stands on elevated ground, in the rear of one of the bastions of the land front, and is connected with the bastion by a curtain. The citadel stands behind the cavalier, and on still more elevated ground. The face has twenty feet of escarp, but the revetments are of good masonry. The ground gradually rises from the glacis to the flagstaff, a height of about 300 feet, and then slopes toward the sea, till abruptly terminated by a perpendicular cliff, from which a plummet may be dropped into the water a distance of 240 feet. The fort is well supplied with water. There are several powder magazines within, in a serviceable state.

Fort Osaburg, nearly three miles from *Fort Frederick*, is built on the termination of a ridge of hills that partly form the boundary of the inner harbour, which the works protect; the government dockyard, immediately below their base, is washed on three sides by the sea. The bay is diversified with verdant islands, would hold all the fleets of Europe, and is accessible at any time. Within the anchorage there is a considerable depth of water: in some places it has not been fathomed. Vessels may lie close alongside the rocks in safety.

Galle Fortress, situated on the south shore of the island, and on a peninsula projecting into the sea, commands the only harbour on that side of Ceylon, into which large ships can enter; but is itself overlooked

by a range of hills 700 yards distant. The lines of defence on the land side, or across the isthmus, consist of one bastion with a cavalier, two half bastions with faussebrayes, and two curtains, with a half-finished ditch in front of the whole, but without casemated barracks or store-houses.* The salient angles of the half bastions are appuied to the harbour and sea. The construction of this fort does not follow any regular system. The remaining defences consist of substantial lines built on the edge of the outline of the peninsula, the base of which is constantly washed by a heavy surf. The face is irregular, in some parts bold, but from the small height of the faussebraye, requires a wet ditch in order to guard against escalade. The revetments are composed of rubble stone and coral laid in lime-mortar, and are in tolerable repair. The place is tolerably well supplied with water.

Jaffna.—The fort of Jaffna is situated on the north-west side of the island, on an inlet of the Gulf of Manaar. The work is an irregular pentagon, with five bastions connected by curtains; the lines of defence are good, and the flanks perpendicular to the curtains: it has four land and one sea front. The former have ravelins: a covert-way throughout, with the exception of the ravelins, to which there is none, the communication passing by gallery under the flanks of the ravelins; also a glacis. The body of the place has a wet ditch, but the ravelins a dry one. The profile has twenty-two feet of escarp: above the level of the wet ditch the revetments are of masonry, and in a good state of repair. The fort contains twenty-five wells, two of which afford good, and the remainder brackish water. This position is held by a small garrison, stationed in a remote part of the island, and surrounded by a dense native population. Independent of the above four principal posts, there are detached ones on the coast, generally occupied by detachments, with a field-work for their protection. In the interior of the island, the principal place is Kandy, an open town situated in a valley, with four unfinished redoubts on the surrounding heights.

The Roads in the maritime country lie through groves of cocoa-nut trees along the sea-coast. Carriage-ways extend from Colombo as far as Chilaw to the northward, and from Colombo through Galle as far as

* The fortresses and fortified posts in Ceylon have recently undergone considerable improvement.

Matura to the southward. The main road from Colombo to Kandy (the Simplon of the East, now regularly traversed by a "mail coach and four") is a work of stupendous magnitude; hills have been levelled, valleys filled up, and (near Kandy) a tunnel *five hundred feet long, cut through the mountain*, while rapid and unfordable torrents and rivers have had substantial iron and wooden bridges thrown across them. A capital road has been opened between Trincomalee and Colombo, and, before a few more years have elapsed, every town in the island will probably be connected by roads passable at all seasons.

PARADEINIA BRIDGE, which has been thrown over the rapid and unfordable river Mahavillagunga, consists of a single arch with a span of 205 feet, principally composed of sappan wood; its height above the river at low-water mark is sixty-seven feet, and the roadway is twenty-two feet wide. The arch is composed of four treble transverse ribs, distant from each other five feet from centre to centre; the average depths of these ribs is four feet, which, with two intervals of two feet each, makes the whole depth of the arch eight feet; the arch-beams, with the exception of those next the abutments, are sixteen to seventeen feet long, and twelve inches thick, abutting against each other with an unbroken section, secured at the joints by the notched pieces which support the roadway, the latter being held in their position by means of cross-ties below and above the arch, and immediately under the roadway; these cross-ties, with the aid of the diagonal braces locked into them, serve to give stability and firmness to the whole structure, which has no other material but timber in its construction.

GEOLOGY AND SOIL.—North division sandy and calcareous, resting upon madrepore, and but little elevated above the level of the sea; the surface of the higher lands of Saffragam and Lower Ouva is much stronger and better adapted for tillage; the granite detritus of the interior produces the most luxuriant crops wherever there are a sufficiency of hands to call forth the reward of industry. The southern plains are sandy, resting on a strong red marl termed "*cabook*," the base of which is granite. In the neighbourhood of Colombo, the lands are low and subject to inundations from the Mutwal river. The foundations of the island are evidently calcareous, yet the greater proportion of its soil is siliceous; in many places (as in the cinnamon gardens near Colombo) the surface being white as snow, and formed of pure quartz sand. The surface is in general traceable to the decomposition of gneiss, granite, or clayey ironstone, the principal ingredient being quartz in the form of sand or gravel, decomposed felspar in the state of clay, combined with different

proportions of oxyde of iron, quartz in most instances being the predominating substance, and in many places forming nine-tenths of the whole; the natural soils seldom containing more than three per cent. vegetable matter. The most productive earths are a brown loam resulting from the disintegration of gneiss or granite abounding in felspar, or a reddish loam originating from the decomposition of clayey ironstone; the worst soils are those where quartz prevails, proceeding from the disintegration of quartz rock, or of granite and gneiss, containing a very large proportion of quartz. Regular granite is not of very common occurrence; well-formed gneiss is more abundant, but sienite is not frequent: pure hornblende, and primitive greenstone, are far from uncommon; and dolomite, sometimes of a pure snow white, well adapted for the statuary, occasionally constitutes low hills in the interior; limestone is principally confined to the northerly province of Jaffnapatam. The island appears to be surrounded by an uninterrupted elain or belt of sandstone, interspersed with coral. The coral of the Paumotu banks is not the zoophite of the Mediterranean and the South Seas, but a light, porous, crumbling substance, formerly cut and shaped into bricks by the Dutch, and more frequently burnt for lime. Of this species of lime the late fort of Negapatam was built; and so great was the hardness which it acquired by long exposure to the weather, that when Major De Haviland, some years ago, requested a specimen of the masonry of the fort to be procured and sent up to him, the iron crows and other instruments used in detaching the blocks were blunted and bent in all directions by the solidity of the chunam, which proved more adhesive than that obtained from shells. A material capable of being converted into so durable a cement, would well pay the expense of excavation. The ridge called "Adam's Bridge," consists of a mass of loose sand, with no firm foundation of rock or clay for its support. The sand appears to be deposited in great quantities on one side or other of the dividing bank, according to the direction of the monsoon; the violence of the surf washes the sand over to the lee side; in other parts, where the ridge is broad, large heaps, in a dry state, are carried across by the sole force of the prevailing wind. The channels have been surveyed at an expense to the E. I. Co. of £24,025, and a passage rendered navigable for vessels of moderate size, at a cost of £16,294.

MINERALS.—The metallic resources are as yet undeveloped; plumbago has been procured to some extent; gold has been found in the mountain streams, but not in sufficient quantity to pay the labour of obtaining: iron, silver, and quicksilver are said to exist. The geological formation indicates the presence of the most valuable ores. The amethyst, topaz, sapphire, garnet, cinnamon stone, rubies, cat's-eye, and other precious stones are found in various places. Alum, nitre, and salt are plentiful.

CLIMATE.—Ceylon is under the complete influence of the monsoons, the north-east prevailing from November to February, and the south-west from April to September; the intervening or equinoctial months having variable winds or calms. The eastern side of the island is hot and dry like the Coromandel coast, during the sway of the north-east monsoon; the opposite division is temperate and humid, like the southern Malabar shore during the continuance of the south-west monsoon; the climate, however, of the southern coast is more congenial to Europeans than perhaps any part of intertropical India. On

the whole, the north and north-east may be said to be dry, and the south-west moist. The south-west wind prevails generally over the island; for both at Colombo and Trincomalee it is felt five months in succession; whereas the north-east blows at Colombo only in the months of December and January—seldom beyond them. Among the mountains of the interior, the winds are modified by local circumstances, according to their proximity to the east or west coast: and the highest and most central lands have peculiarities of their own. Thus, at Badulla, in Upper Oova (where there is an excellent hospital and military station), the wind for three-fourths of the year is from the north-east, and in June, July, and August variable. Owing to its intertropical position, the quantity of rain that falls in Ceylon is large. At Colombo the annual quantity is stated at about one hundred inches, of which eighty fall in April, May, October, and November.* Though infrequent, the showers are very heavy while they last, a depth of two or three inches being not uncommon in twenty-four hours; the average of the Alpine region is about eighty-four inches. Less rain falls on the east than on the west side of the island; a lofty mountainous ridge often acting as a line of demarcation, one side of which is heavily drenched, while the other lies scorched beneath an unclouded sun. On one part of the island, and even on one face of a mountain, the rain may fall in torrents, while in the contrary aspect the earth is parched and the herbage withered;—here the inhabitants may be securing themselves from expected inundations,—there they will be found husbanding with care the little water of a former season which may yet remain in their wells and tanks. Thus throughout the southern division, where the rains are copious (owing, probably, to its exposure to the southern ocean), canals are not less useful in draining the lowlands, than in the conveyance of produce; and embankments are much required to secure the crops from destruction during the rainy season; while in the

northern division of the island, tanks and watercourses are in the greatest request, to secure the inhabitants against the terrible effects of frequent droughts to which their districts are liable.

Owing chiefly to its insular position, no climate is more favoured than Ceylon, its temperature being moderate when compared with the scorching heat of India. Along the sea-coast the mean annual temperature may be taken at 80° Fahrenheit; the extreme range from 68° to 90°; and the medium from 75° to 85°. The climate of the mountains is of course cooler, but the vicissitudes greater. At Kandy, which is 1,467 feet above the sea, the mean annual temperature is 78°; at the top of Nampini Cooli Kandia, 5,548 feet high, Dr. Davy found the temperature, at eight A.M., 37°. At Colombo (the capital) the mean daily variation of the temperature does not exceed 3°; while the annual range of the thermometer is from 70° to 86½° Fahr. At Galle, the mean daily variation is 4°, and the annual range 71° to 87°. Jaffnapatam—mean daily variation, 5°; annual range, 70° to 90°; Trincomalee—greatest daily variation, 17°; annual range, 74° to 91°. At Kandy (the capital of the mountain or table-land in the interior), mean daily variation, 6°; annual range, 66° to 86°. At Newera Ellia, a military convalescent station, mean daily variations as high as 11°, and annual variation from 35° to 80°.† The climate, where the ground is not cleared, is undoubtedly subject to pernicious malaria, arising from stagnant marshes, and dank and noisome jungles; and even after the removal of these incentives to disease, it requires the continuous healthy action of the sun for some time before the unhealthy miasma is dissipated; at certain seasons, therefore, endemic fevers still appear in situations favourable to their propagation, but the whole island is growing more uniformly salubrious as it becomes cleared and cultivated. The environs of Trincomalee, which were formerly very unhealthy, have become much less so by clearing the jungles in the environs.

Ceylon Meteorology.

Colombo (sea-shore) Register.										Badulla (2,107 ft. above the sea.)					
Months.	Thermometer.					Barometer.		Wind.	Rain Gauge, inches.	Thermometer.					
	Mean Morn.	Mean Mid-day.	Mean Night.	High-est.	Low-est.	Maxi- mum.	Mini- mum.			S. A. M.	Noon.	S. P. M.	High-est.	Low-est.	
January	78	81	79	82½	76	29.85	29.86	N.	1.0	62	72	66	74	55	
February	79	83	81½	85	76	30.	29.85	N. to N. E.	0.4	63	74	68	77	55	
March	80	84	82	85	77	29.90	29.80	N. E. & S. W.	8.1	62	76	67	80	50	
April	81	84	82	86½	80	29.87	29.85	S. W.	11.7	66	78	70	80	65	
May	82	85	82	86½	80	29.93	29.80	S. W.	6.6	68	78	71	83	64	
June	81	83	82	86	79	29.88	29.80	Do.	2.3	61	77	72	80	65	
July	80	83	81	81	79	29.98	29.	Do.	10.7	63	74	71	81	60	
August	81	83	82	83	80	29.90	—	Do.	3.5	66	79	71	83	60	
September	82	85	82	85	81	29.90	29.80	Do.	8.2	66	79	72	82	62	
October	80	83	81	83	78	29.90	29.80	Do.	7.1	66	79	72	83	62	
November	80	82	81	83	79	30.	29.90	S. W. to N	7.1	67	75	71	83	62	
December	80	82	80	84	78	29.90	29.80	and N. E.	18.6	67½	73	71	75	62	

* Badulla is situate on a plain, in a mountainous country surrounded by hills, with an elevation of 1,600 to 3,000 feet, towards the south-eastern extremity of Ceylon, having the sea at 40 to 50 miles distant on the east, south, and west sides; the elevation of Badulla, above the ocean level, is 2,107 feet.

† Remarks by a Kandian Chief, the result of Sixty Years' Observation.—Jan. Heavy rains, and very cold nights. Feb. No rain, hot. March. A little rain, and warm. April. No rain; very warm. May. Light rain; windy. June. No rain, hot and dry. July. Ditto; very hot. Aug. Ditto; hot. Sept. Ditto; ditto. Oct. Heavy rains, and cool. Nov. Ditto, ditto. Dec. Hot and dry; very cold nights.

* The Rain Gauge, showing a total of 84.3 inches, is for Kandy (in 1819), in the interior, which constitutes the average of the mountain districts; on the sea-shore, as at Colombo, the average annual fall of rain is from 80 to 100 inches.

* At an estate in the Hunasgiri Mountains, 3,000 feet above the sea, the range of the thermometer from 16th September to 16th October, was 62° to 72° Fahr.; the fall of rain 27 inches; wind westerly.

† Our troops have suffered much in Ceylon; but it should be recollected, that as compared with the Indian army, their routine of duty is of a severe description. The insular force have not the

A delightful station has been formed at Newera Ellia, south-west from Kandy fifty miles, fourteen from Fort McDonald, fifteen from Maturatte, and 122 from Colombo. The road between Newera Ellia and Kandy leads through a wild and mountainous country; the scenery, always picturesque, is sometimes magnificent in the extreme: at one time, the traveller is surrounded by steep and inaccessible mountains, whose sides are clothed with dense forests; while rocks of enormous size, deep and precipitous ravines, and cataracts rushing with foaming velocity from the heights, diversify the picture. The elevation of Newera Ellia plain (four miles long, and one and a-half broad) is 6,000 feet above the sea, and surrounded by steep mountains of irregular height, covered with wood to the very summit; one in particular, rises 2,000 feet above the level of the Newera Ellia river, which meanders through lovely banks across the plain. The climate is agreeable, never approaching

tropical heat in summer, with sometimes ice in winter; the mean temperature, by day and night, for the entire year, 55°. So that visitors who have recently quitted a climate within a few degrees of the equator, often learn with astonishment, that a fire is always enjoyed by night, and frequently in the day. The water is so pure as to form a transparent solution with nitrate of silver; several chalybeate springs have been met with. The daisy, buttercup, violet, ribwort, dandelion, barberry, briar, &c., flourish indigenously; the rose, pink, mignonette, and carnation, are fragrant as in England; delicious strawberries are abundant, and potatoes, carrots, artichokes, peas, beans, salads, cabbages, turnips, parsnips, and in fact all British culinary vegetable thrive perfectly. The soil is of a deep black mould, resting on a stratum of yellow clay and gravel: numerous varieties of beautiful quartz exist.

Health of Troops in India, Ceylon, and Mauritius.

Stations.	Period.		Total No. Years.	Strength	Ann. mean No. of Deaths.	Mean ratio of Deaths.	Ann. mean No. of Men Invalided.	Mean ratio of Men Invalided.	Total loss by Death and Invaliding.
	From	To							
INDIA:									
Bengal Army	1825	1826	1	7,976	774	9.7	379	4.7	11.5
Madras Army	1808	1809	2	8,717	713	8.1	—	—	—
Ditto ditto	1815	1821	7	12,592	794	6.3	486	3.7	10.1
17th Dragoons	1809	1822	14	750	75	7.8	—	—	—
Royal Regiment, 2nd bat. . . .	1807	1834	24	1,067	92	7.6	37	3.1	10.8
13th Regiment ^a	1823	1829	7	764	133	19.6	—	—	—
34th ditto	1803	1823	20	895	69	7.7	—	—	—
45th ditto	1819	1830	12	738	63	8.5	22	3	11.5
59th ditto	1806	1818	13	901	69	7.8	21	2.3	10
65th ditto	1801	1822	22	971	64	6.5	18	1.8	8.1
69th ditto	1805	1820	15	844	68	8.5	—	—	—
78th ditto	1797	1815	19	846	96	11.3	—	—	—
CEYLON:									
19th Regiment	1796	1819	24	837	62	7.4	24	2.8	10.2
73rd ditto ^b	1818	1820	3	654	184	28.1	55	5.3	33.4
82nd ditto	1818	1820	3	871	78	8.9	55	6.3	15.2
MAURITIUS:									
82nd Regiment	1820	1831	12	574	20	3.7	24	4.5	8.2

^a This gallant regiment suffered much during the Burmese war, and the disproportionate mortality was owing to the unhealthiness of Rangoon, and other exceptional causes.

^b The mortality in the 73rd regiment was owing to great fatigue and exposure during the Kandian war, and subsequent rebellion, which involved the detention of the troops in mountainous and swampy districts.

The above table shows the military returns of a past period, since which great improvement has taken place in the salubrity of Ceylon. By the latest data it appears that the average mortality of the troops (the criterion generally referred to) has considerably diminished, and may now be taken at four per cent. per annum.

POPULATION.—The immense ruins extant demonstrate that the island was formerly ex-

tensively peopled. An area of nearly 25,000 square miles could readily support 300 mouths to each square mile = 7,500,000. The number of inhabitants had evidently been declining for several centuries; the tide has now turned, and a progressive augmentation may be expected. In 1811, the maritime provinces had 475,883; in 1824, 595,105; the total of the island was then about 852,940. In 1832, the population

facilities of water communication which the Ganges and its tributaries afford; the one country is in many parts quite unpeopled, the other comparatively civilised; add to which a pernicious system prevails in Ceylon of making the troops commence marches at midnight, than which nothing can be more injurious. A late intelligent deputy-inspector-general of the hospitals in Ceylon (H. Marshall, Esq.), drew up the above comparative table of the health and mortality of troops in India, Ceylon, and Mauritius; but it must be remembered, in the first place, that his data for Ceylon were collected some time ago, since

which period the country has already materially improved; and in order to judge accurately, we should know the ages of the deceased and invalided, and the tropical service endured. I give, however, the table, in the hope that it may induce further inquiry based on the valuable records already framed by medical officers of the British army, than whom, no class of persons can have better opportunities for this peculiar investigation; and certainly none have contributed more generally to the diffusion of the literature and science of England throughout her colonies.

20 CLASSIFIED POPULATION OF CEYLON AT VARIOUS PERIODS.

was stated to be 1,009,008; of whom there were—whites, males, 3,213; females, 3,154 = 6,367; the slaves* were then—males, 11,373; females, 11,616 = 22,989. In 1836, a return made shows—males, 615,492; females, 584,336 = 1,229,828: of these, the whites were—males, 5,107; females, 3,506; including military—males, 2,495; their wives and children, 577 = 11,985:

the slaves were stated to be—males, 14,108; females, 13,289 = 27,397. The population of Colombo fort, Pettah or native town, and Korles or divisions, was, in 1831—fort, 432; Pettah within, 4,760; without, 26,357; Korles, 203,242. The statistics of population are thus stated in the *Blue Book* for the year 1852, but on what data the estimate was formed is not recorded.

Provinces.	Area in sq. miles.	Whites.		Coloured.		Aliens and Resident Strangers.	Months to sq. m.	Persons engaged in			Births.	Marriages.	Deaths.
		Males.	Fem.	Males.	Females.			Agriculture.	Manu- factures.	Com- merce.			
Western . . .	3,820	1,553	1,152	278,267	247,168	7,055	140	120,064	21,100	26,887	16,004	6,318	7,247
North-Western . . .	3,362	82	75	96,796	91,539	2,068	56	85,664	1,977	2,806	2,912	1,986	2,633
Southern . . .	2,147	368	241	189,779	179,241	1,081	172	109,063	13,554	12,657	8,550	4,577	5,947
Eastern . . .	4,753	588	474	40,912	37,294	1,057	16	15,537	3,516	2,976	3,841	741	1,369
Northern . . .	5,127	413	414	155,501	148,896	577	56	—	4,500	3,881	6,373	1,129	4,976
Central . . .	5,191	454	223	115,101	95,572	15,133	43	145,041	6,771	12,715	4,222	1,931	3,350
Total . . .	24,700	3,425	2,879	876,556	797,590	27,001	69	475,769	51,418	61,922	41,992	16,752	25,512
Military and their families }	—	1,909	322	2,540	1,673	—	—	—	—	—	200	79	164

The total fixed inhabitants therefore seems to be—males, 879,784; females, 800,409 = 1,680,193, which shows an increase of upwards of half a million in twenty years. The number of mouths to each square mile are now about seventy; the island could well support four times that density, or six to seven million occupants. There is a considerable migration of labourers to and from the islands: in 1853, the number of arrivals were—men, 36,582; women, 2,012; children, 653; departures—men, 27,129; women, 981; children, 378. This annual influx of the working classes may tend to explain the otherwise unaccountably rapid increase of population.

Although comprising a variety of different nations, the inhabitants may be divided into four distinct classes. 1st. The Singhalese or Ceylonese proper (descended, by some accounts, from the Sings or Rajpoots of Hindoostan, and by others from the Siamese), who occupy Kandy, and the south and south-west coasts of the island from Hambantotte to Chilaw. 2nd. The Malabars or Hindoos, who invaded Ceylon from the opposite coast, and are in possession of the north and east coasts, and of the peninsula of Jaffnapatam. 3rd. The Moors, who are dispersed all over the island, and in Putlam district form the mass of the population. 4th. Veddas or Beddas, the aborigines of the island, who dwell in the great forests which extend from the south to the east and north, and also in the more inaccessible parts of

the interior. There are some Malays, Kafirs, and Javanese, a few Chinese, and Parsee traders, and a good many of mixed race, the off-spring of Portuguese, Dutch, and even English intercourse with natives, scattered over the island. *Caste*, as respects the Singhalese and Malabars, is scrupulously preserved, and very widely ramified, almost every occupation having its distinct class. There are, for instance, the gold and silver-smiths caste, the fishers, the barbers, the washermen, the manufacturers of jaghiery (sugar), the toddy drawers, the lime-makers, &c.; but the highest and most esteemed is that of Vellalabs or Goyas, whose occupations are exclusively agricultural; yet as land is assigned in part payment of every description of service, the practice of husbandry is not confined to the Vellalabs, but exercised by persons of all castes for subsistence. By the Kandian laws intermarriage between the high and low castes is prohibited, and many are the distinctions recognised and enforced, by which the latter have been degraded and reduced, by slow degrees, to a state of hereditary servility. While the Malabars professing the Hindoo faith maintain the *religious* as well as the *civil* distinction of caste, the Singhalese or Buddhists have abolished the former and retained the latter.

In colour the Singhalese vary from light brown or olive to black; the eyes sometimes hazel, but the hair almost always black, long, and silky; in height they are 5 ft. 4 to 5 ft. 7; clean made, with

* Slavery is now totally abolished throughout Ceylon.

firm muscle, and small bone; the chest capacious, and the shoulders broad; and in the mountainous districts, like most other highlanders, they have short but strong and rather muscular legs and thighs; the hands and feet, like those of the Hindoos, are uncommonly small; the head well shaped, perhaps longer than the European; the features often handsome, and generally intelligent and animated; the beard is unshorn, giving manliness to the youthful countenance, and dignity to that of age. The women, particularly those of the maritime provinces, are very attractive. Yet there are some strange points in the *beau ideal*, drawn by a Kandian courtier, of the attributes of an Eastern Venus:—"Her hair should be voluminous, like the tail of a peacock—long, reaching to the knees, and terminating in graceful curls; her eyebrows should resemble the rainbow, her eyes the blue sapphire, and the petals of the blue manilla-flower; her nose should be like the bill of the hawk; her lips should be bright and red, like coral, or the young leaf of the iron-tree; her teeth should be small, regular, closely set, and like jessamine-buds; her neck should be large and round, resembling the herringbone; her chest capacious; her breast firm and conical, like the yellow cocoa-nut, and her waist small—almost small enough to be clasped by the hand; her hips wide; limbs tapering; soles of feet without any hollow; and the surface of her body in general soft, delicate, smooth, and rounded, without the asperities of projecting bones and sinews." The latter feature may be considered generally characteristic of the Singhalese, who are rather remarkable for agility and flexibility of fibre than for strength and power of limb. Whatever may have been the extent of civilisation in Ceylon at a remote period, at the present time the people are not superior, if indeed equal, to the Hindoos, in the domestic and fine arts; among many branches of manufactures, such as the weaving of cotton and silk, the smelting of, and working in, gold, silver, iron, copper, &c.; the cutting and setting of precious stones, the glazing of pottery, application of lacquer, preparation of gunpowder, casting of cannon, distillation of spirits, &c., are carried on with extraordinary success, considering the simple instruments employed and the scanty aid obtained from science.

The "Moormen" constitute the active traders of Ceylon. At Colombo they are principally connected with the coffee opera-

tions; at Trincomalee they are engaged in the ebony, satin, and other cabinet-wood felling and export; at Batticaloa, they own the coasting craft which ply with the adjacent continent; in the interior they are pedlars, bartering European goods for native produce; and wherever there is a favourable opening for business, they are established as shopkeepers; their colour is darker than that of the Singhalese; their language that of Southern India (Tamil); and their religion the Sheah sect of Mohammedanism. They are industrious, frugal, and wealthy; shrewd at a bargain, always ready to buy or sell, and form a valuable class of society. I found this active, intelligent race in all the towns, whether Arab or Portuguese, along the coast of Eastern Africa. They have no tradition of their origin: some suppose them to be a remnant of the Persians, by whom Ceylon was frequented A.D. 500; others suggest their being Arabs by descent, but their features do not sustain this opinion. My own impression is, that they are emigrants from Morocco and Western Africa; that they traded along the shores of that continent, and thus reached India; and that they belong to the race formerly known as Moors, and still found on the banks of the Senegal and of the Gambia rivers.

The Veddias are a remnant of the aborigines who possessed the eastern part, if not the whole of the island, when it was invaded by Vegeya and his followers, B.C. 543. They are divided into two classes: the first have fixed residences, cultivate small patches of land, and communicate, but do not mix with the Singhalese; the second are foresters—rove from place to place in search of game, and do not till the earth. They exchange venison preserved in honey for arrow-heads, the only manufactured article much coveted. Both classes are nearly naked, and are considered to be milder rather than savage: those I saw near Badulla resemble somewhat the Gonds and Koles of India, alike in their appearance and worship (*see* Div. XI., p. 505.) Among the resident aliens there are some Kafirs (of whom the 2nd Ceylon regiment was formerly composed), Malays, Javanese, Chinese, Parsees, and a good many descendants of the Portuguese and Dutch—a mixed race; to these are now being added many children born of native mothers, whose fathers are of British blood.

The national character of the Singhalese is unfavourable: among the dwellers on the

coast-line and flat country, apathy, sloth, and servility abound;—among the Kandians, or people of the mountain region, cruelty, cunning, and deceit;—among all, lying, theft, sensuality,* and cowardice. Such are my own impressions after personal intercourse with both classes. Sir J. E. Tennent says—"Jealousy, slander, litigation, and revenge prevail to an unlooked-for excess; licentiousness is so universal that it has ceased to be opprobrious, and hatred so ungovernable, that murders are by no means rare. Falsehood, the unerring index of innate debasement, is of ubiquitous prevalence; theft is equally prevalent; and deceit, in every conceivable shape, in forgery and fraud, in corruption and defamation, is so notorious and habitual amongst the uneducated mass, that the feeling of confidence is almost unknown; and in the most intimate arrangements of domestic life, the bond of brotherhood or friendship, of parent and of child, inspires no effectual reliance in the mutual good faith and honour of the interested parties."†

THE RELIGION of the majority of the Singhalese‡ is Buddhism. When it arose, and whether as an offshoot of Brahminism, or the primary stock of that creed, are questions which have given rise to many learned discussions, and still remain unsolved. In the opinion of some Hindoo sages, *Budh* or *Boodh*, is supposed to be the ninth avatar of *Vishnu* (the second person of the Hindoo triad, and god of preservation), who reappeared for the purpose of reclaiming the Hindoos from many abominations into which they had fallen, and teaching them more benevolent forms of worship, than through the means of human and animal sacrifices which they then extensively practised.§ These doctrines being too simple, and therefore interfering with the privileges of the Brahminical priests, a religious war ensued between the old and new sects, and the Buddhists were

ultimately expelled from the peninsula of India.¶ But the Buddhists in general will not tolerate the idea of superior antiquity being conceded to the Brahminical faith; they deny the identity of Buddh with the ninth avatar of Vishnu, which they declare was a mere manifestation of his power. They do not acknowledge a *creation* of the universe, but assert that it has been destroyed many times, and, by some extraordinary operation, as often reproduced. They enumerate twenty-two of these regenerated worlds, each of which was consecutively governed by Buddhas, and say that the present universe has been ruled successively by four, of whom *Gotama-Gaudama-Sakya* is the fourth; a fifth, *Maitree Buddha*, is yet to come, previous to which this world will be changed..

Gaudama, stated to have been the son of the sovereign of the celebrated kingdom of Magadha (Bahar),¶ was born at Pataliputra (? Patna) B.C. 623, and after traversing India and Ceylon for the propagation of his faith, died B.C. 543, æt. 80. Two centuries after his demise, the Singhalese, who then worshipped demons and serpents, were converted to Buddhism, the doctrines of which were reduced to writing in the Pali language between 104 and 76 B.C.

Mr. Thurnour, a distinguished Singhalese scholar, asserted that there are veritable records in Pali relative to Buddhism since the year 500 B.C.; beyond this time the Buddhists admit that all is legendary. There is a wide diversity of opinion as to the character of the religion connected with the name of Buddh: some (including Mountstuart Elphinstone) contend that it is atheistic; others (including Colonel Sykes) say it is theistic. There can, however, be no doubt that it is highly metaphysical, capable of varied interpretations, full of subtleties, and well adapted for the subjugation of the mass of its disciples to priestcraft, through the instrumentality of monasteries, mummeries, sacred relics,** and

* Marriage until recently was unknown, and polyandria was general.

† *Christianity in Ceylon*, p. 252.

‡ At Jaffna, and in the north of Ceylon, the people are of the Brahminical faith.

§ See Coleman on the *Mythology of the Hindoos*.

¶ Among the absurdities gravely argued in reference to this point, it is dogmatically asserted, that "the final overthrow of Buddhism in Bahar, and its expulsion from Hindoostan, took place probably between the 7th and 12th centuries of the Christian era. Colonel Sykes, however, extends the period to the 13th or 14th."—(*Asiatic Journal*, vol. iv., p. 331.) From hence it would appear that a

"final overthrow" was in progress of accomplishment for five or seven hundred years!

¶ For a notice of Magadha, see previous history of India in this work, Div. xi., p. 18.

** The greatest object of veneration is termed the *delada*, or tooth of Buddh, which is a piece of discoloured ivory about two inches in length, in shape and dimensions resembling the formidable tusk of a boar. It is said to have been originally deposited at the temple of Juggernath in Orissa, then a Buddhistic shrine: about 1,500 years ago it was removed to Ceylon, and retained as a palladium, the possession of it being deemed inseparable from the sovereignty of the island. There are doubts of its

other delusions. The foundation of the creed consists of commands enjoined by Buddh; these were originally *five* (necessary to the attainment of perfection); to which were added five injunctions, meritorious but not imperative. The first five are—1st. Not to kill a living creature of any kind; 2nd. Not to steal; 3rd. Not to commit adultery; 4th. Not to speak an untruth on any occasion; 5th. Not to use intoxicating liquors or drugs. The discretionary commands are—not to eat after mid-day; and not to sleep on costly, soft, or elevated beds (but on clean mats), or indulge sensually. The others inculcate, generally, virtue and benevolence, and the practice of rigid abstinence.

By obedience to these rules, and the practice of virtue (including the forgiveness of injuries), every human being may, it is asserted, through his own efforts, and unaided by any Divine spirit, attain the highest degree of bliss in this world and in the next—*Nirwana*, a state resulting from the total subjugation, or rather extinction, of passions and desires, but which probably means, according to our translation of the word, a mystical condition of perfect peace and imperturbable repose.

In the Buddhistic theology there are twenty-six heavens, placed one above another; there are also several hells: both differ in their glory and in their terror, and have, as Plutarch and Dante figured, distinct gradations in the scale of happiness or of misery. The doctrine of metempsychosis (which prevails in several forms of religion as well as in Brahminism) involves the permission of individuals whose etherialisation is incomplete, to revisit this earth in future births, to attain the bliss

authenticity; and it is said the Portuguese destroyed the original tooth and substituted the present tusk, which is kept in a small and elegant temple. The relic chamber is hung with cloths of golden tissue; and on a table of massive silver, richly chased, is a small *dugoba*, hung with gold chains and other ornaments, and containing the sacred caskets, within the innermost of which the tooth is enshrined amidst the leaves of a golden lotus. The paraphernalia has a profusion of pearls, brilliant sapphires, large emeralds, rubies, cat's-eyes, amethysts, and other precious stones; the whole valued at £60,000. On our final occupation of Kandy, a guard of soldiers was placed over the temple, which the Kandians prized as a mark of respect for Buddhism, but which had reference to the wealth of the shrine and the tradition attached to its possession. Christians objected to the use made of our governmental care for the tooth, and in 1848, the relic was given over in charge to the Dewa Nilleme, or Kandian chief of highest rank,

of *nirwana*. Misfortune is supposed to be the result of moral demerit in some previous stage of existence, as neither in heaven nor on earth can man escape the consequences of his acts, for which he must personally atone. Matter is eternal, but subject at remote intervals to decay and reformation, and, together with animal life, is spontaneous in origin, and operating by procession. Buddhism is said to be "less a form of religion than a *school of philosophy*"; and its worship, according to the institutes of its founders, consists of an appeal to the *reason*, rather than an attempt on the imagination through the instrumentality of rites and parade."* Surely it is a misnomer to dignify such contradictory ideas and absurd hypotheses with the name of "philosophy" or of "reason." Spontaneity of material existence, devoid of thought, plan, and wisdom of design, will not, in reference either to our own structure and being, or to all we see around, from the minutest insects to the revolving planets, bear the slightest intellectual test, or any attempt whatever to found thereon a philosophical system.

A further exposition is beyond my limits; but I may observe, after a personal observation of the effects of Buddhism in Ceylon and in China, that notwithstanding nearly 2,000 years' trial, under the most favourable circumstances in Ceylon, it has utterly failed, either for the expansion of reason, the inculcation of philosophy, or the promotion of social happiness. The Singhalese, where not brought under the influence of Christian teaching or example, are as cruel, sensual, lying, faithless, vicious, debased, and superstitious as any other Pagans; indeed, far below many other benighted

and with him was associated the high priests of the province: one key of the temple was kept by the principal British officer at Kandy. Subsequently, when fears were entertained that the *delada* might be used as heretofore to excite rebellion among the population, government resumed its sole custody; but in May, 1853, it was again consigned to the care of those to whom it had been entrusted in 1848, and they are held responsible for its safety. The Buddhists delight in relics of their leader. The learned Chinese, Fa Hian, whose recorded travels in the fifth century through various parts of Asia are extant, states that he saw at Ladak a vase in which Boodh had spat, and a tooth, in honour of which latter a tower had been erected by the king. Cuttings of the hair and nails were preserved in monasteries; and at Nankin, Fa Hian was shown a *shadow* of Buddh, but he was unable to describe how it had been preserved.

* Tennent's *Christianity in Ceylon*, p. 220.

racés in the exercise of those virtues which they so highly extol. And every creed fails that is not of Divine origin. HE that created man,—who breathed into his nostrils the breath of life, and made him a living soul,—can alone frame the theology which links us with eternity. I cannot speak of Buddhism as “a code of morality for mankind in general, *second* only to that of Christianity itself.”* I cannot recognise any “second” or degree in relation to falsehood and truth. Christian morality springs *from*, does not cause, regeneration: works arise from faith, not faith from works. Christianity denounces the sinful thought as equal to the sinful act; enjoins us to *love* our enemies antecedently to the forgiveness of injuries; and declares there is but *one mode* by which we can be purified from the taint of original sin which pervades every descendant of Adam.

Another topic on which I think misapprehension exists, requires a brief comment, especially as it has been promulgated by a high authority, who says—“Looking to its (Buddhism) influence at the present day over at least 350,000,000 of human beings (exceeding one-third of the human race), it is no exaggeration to say that the religion of Buddh is the most widely diffused that now exists, or that has ever existed since the creation of mankind.”† This would indeed be lamentable were the statement founded on statistical data. Buddhism extends over part of Ceylon; a small sect of it, under the name of Jains, is scattered in Western India and in parts of Nepal; it predominates in Tibet, Burmah, Siam, Cochin China, Japan, and in a very small portion of China, where its worship is fast decaying. It would be a large admission to say that the votaries of Buddh amount to 100,000,000, or *one-tenth* of the human race, instead of one-third of mankind.

With reference to “*wide diffusion*,” Buddhism is by no means so extensively diffused as Mohammedanism, which prevails over the whole of Africa, is found in every corner of Asia, throughout the Asiatic islands, and in the east of Europe. As regards “*influence*,” that of Christianity is more general than any other creed: it is felt throughout the entire of Europe and America; in Western Asia; at various parts of Western, Southern, and Eastern Africa; over all India, from Cape Comorin to the Himalaya; from Afghanistan to Burmah;

in the Eastern Archipelago, in Australia, New Zealand, and over the wide-spread isles of the Pacific; and in China, where the insurrection involves more or less the teaching of Christianity: in fact, there is no part of the habitable globe where the “influence” of the Gospel is unfelt, and which is not being gradually but surely filled with the knowledge of the only true God.

There is a tradition that some Christians settled in Ceylon many centuries since, and subsequently retired from the island; but the Singhalese in general, seem to have derived their first knowledge of the gospel from the Portuguese, who here as in India probably considered that “Pagans may be brought over to our religion, not only by the hopes of eternal salvation, but also by temporal interest and preferment.” Thus John III. directed, that when any of the Indians professed Christianity, they were to be provided with places in the customs, to be exempted from impressment for the navy, and sustained by the distribution of rice from the public treasury. Such a policy, in conjunction with the close resemblance between the forms of Romish worship and those of Buddhism, procured many nominal converts. But the process not being found sufficiently rapid, the Jesuits, in their zeal, resolved on the adoption of a course of policy which they assumed to be justified by the saying of Paul—of becoming all things to all men: in fact, they acted the part of some Puseyites in the present day, who go half-way over to the Romanists, in the expectation of bringing the latter into the church of England fold; an experiment which often terminates in their own renunciation of the reformed faith.

The Jesuits assumed the character of Brahmins of a superior caste from the western world,—conformed to the heathen customs, and, in support of their pretensions, produced a deed, forged in ancient characters, to show that the Brahmins of Rome were of much older date than the Brahmins of India, and descended in an equally direct line from Brahma himself. They also composed a pretended Veda, in which they profanely strove to insinuate the doctrines of Christianity in the language and phraseology of the sacred books of the Hindoos. The Cavy, or orange robe, peculiar to the Sanyassces, the fourth and most venerated of the Brahminical caste, was worn by the Jesuits, some of whom hung a tiger’s robe from their shoulders, in imitation of Siva; abstained from animal food, wine, and prohibited

* *Christianity in Ceylon*, p. 219.

† *Ibid.*, pp. 192—200.

vegetables; performed the ablutions required by the shastras; marked their foreheads with sandal-wood powder (a distinctive emblem of Hindooism), and spurned the Pariahs and lower castes who could lay no claim to the inherent nobility of the Brahmins.*

Abbé Dubois, the Roman catholic missionary who records these facts, argues in favour of that communion, as calculated to make more impression in India than the Protestant, because "its external pomp and show are well suited to the genius and disposition of the natives: it has a *poouja* or sacrifice, processions, images, and statues; *tirtan* or holy water, feasts, fasts, and prayers for the dead; invocation of saints, and other practices which bear more or less resemblance to that of the Hindoos." The Jesuits availed themselves of these coincidences; images of the Virgin and of the Saviour were placed on triumphal cars, initiated from the orgies of Juggernath; the dancers (women of the most abandoned profligacy) of idolatrous temples were invited to celebrate the ceremonies of the Romish church, in chapels fitted up with theatres and stages for the exhibition of the mysteries and representations of the great historical events of the Jewish and Christian epochs, in which the grotesque and the profane were mingled as a means of inducing the Pagan beholders to profess themselves disciples of the new and holy creed.

It is not surprising that many of the Singhalese Buddhists, as well as Tamil Hindoos, enrolled by the Portuguese as Christian converts, retained all the superstitions and most degrading characteristics of their Pagan faith; nevertheless chapels and convents arose in every direction around the European settlements, many of which attest, to the present day, the care and expense bestowed in their erection.

When the Dutch became dominant in Ceylon, they bitterly denounced the intrigues of the Romish clergy. In 1658, a proclamation was issued, though not it appears enforced, forbidding, on penalty of death, the harbouring or concealing a priest: in 1715, public assemblies or private conventicles of the Roman catholics were prohibited; neither were their pastors suffered to administer baptism under any circumstances: in 1748, the education of the obnoxious

ministry was declared unlawful, as also the celebration of the mass. At Jaffna the Dutch took possession of the Romish chapels, and established Presbyterian schools in connection with them. Persecution for religious faith makes men cling to it the more: many of the Romanists in Ceylon adhered to their form of worship; but others, tempted by the declaration of the ruling power,—that honourable public employment, the farming of land, &c., could only be granted to legally registered government Christians, became members of the dominant communion, and subscribed to the doctrines contained in the Helvetic confession of faith. The list of converts swelled apace: it was soon announced that there were 65,000 *Christian*(?) men and women in Jaffna; and as baptism was deemed a mark of good caste, children were placed in rows, sprinkled *en masse*, and declared to be admitted into the kingdom of heaven; and the ceremony became so popular, that an "unbaptized wretch" grew to be a Singhalese term of reproach. Fines were imposed to compel the attendance of the natives at church and at school; and those who had property and remained unbaptized, might be deprived of a third of their possessions. At the same time hostility was waged against the Buddhists, their idolatrous ceremonies suppressed, and their temples near the Dutch stations closed. In 1722, Valentyn gives the number of nominal Christians in Ceylon thus:—In Jaffna (Tamils), 189,388; Singhalese in other places, 179,845; at Galle, 55,159 = 424,393; besides 2,799 young men and 1,493 girls, candidates for baptism.† Whether these numbers increased or decreased down to the period of the arrival of the English in 1796, there is no record; but soon after our occupation, the Dutch Christians had almost entirely disappeared, while Romanism revived after the abolition, in 1806, of the disabilities under which members of that creed laboured, the governor (Sir Thomas Maitland) having admitted them to "all civil privileges and capacities" throughout the island. Under the auspices of the British government, several Protestant missionary bodies speedily commenced their labours in the field where Portuguese and Dutch had made few converts beside Christian Buddhists.‡

ment consisted of three English chaplains, two German presbyterians, and six proponents, a clerical functionary of the Dutch church, with the functions of a catechist and deacon. In a few years there will be no Dutch congregation in the island.

* *Christianity in Ceylon*: by Sir J. E. Tennent.

† Tennent; Hough's *Christianity in India*: Abbé Dubois' *Letters*; *Asiatic Researches*, vol. xiv.

‡ The nominal Christianity of the natives declined so rapidly, that in 1813 the ecclesiastical establish-

The new teachers reached Ceylon in the following order:—In 1804, three German missionaries, from the London Missionary Society, arrived: in 1812, a deputation from the Baptists stationed at Serampore: in 1814, some Wesleyans came to the island; but their distinguished leader, Dr. Coke, died on the voyage: in 1816, three clergymen were dispatched by the American Board of Foreign Missions: and in 1818, four ordained missionaries of the church of England were sent out.

The success of these and later fellow-labourers has not as yet been great in the conversion of adults, but it has been satisfactory in character. The remark previously made on conversion from Hindooism, when treating of missionary labours among the Hindoos, applies here with equal force. There is little hope of regeneration from men and women who have been nurtured in idolatry and superstition: it is to the education of children we must look; and herein the missions now engaged in Ceylon have been very successful, not only with boys, but with girls, whom they have induced to enter into boarding-schools, and to view instruction as conducive to success in life.

The total Protestant mission establishment is thus stated, for 1852, by the Rev. J. Mullens:—Mission stations, 55; missionaries, 60; local preachers, 98; English churches, 9; native chapels, 81; native Christians, 18,046. Schools: *boys*—vernacular schools, 1,347; pupils, 47,504; boarding-schools, 7; pupils, 247; English schools, 34; pupils, 1,373: *girls*—day-schools, 85; pupils, 2,747; boarding-schools, 5; pupils, 203. According to the Ceylon almanac for 1854, the missions in the island were as follows:—*Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts*—missionaries, 13; stations, 29. *Church Missionary Society*—missionaries, 14; stations, 7; number in congregation, 3,957. *Wesleyan* missionaries, 15; stations, 11; communicants, 1,456. *Baptist* missionaries, 14; stations, 3; members, 489. *American Mission*—missionaries, 12; stations, 8; number of converts not stated. *Roman Catholic Mission*—missionaries, 35; stations, 18; number of converts not stated.

The Bible has been translated into Singhalese (10,000 copies printed), and the Testament into the Pali language. Fourteen thousand copies have been printed of an Indo-Portuguese Testament.

EDUCATION.—The governmental schools

are under the supervision of a commission. The number of children under tuition, in 1853, is thus shown:—Three superior schools, 206 children; nine elementary ditto, 327; thirty-seven mixed ditto, 1,106; four superior female ditto, 219; ten English female ditto, 123; four vern. female schools, 47; twenty-nine vern. boys' schools, 908; twenty-six Jaffna grant schools, 1,137. Total schools, 122; total children, 4,073. In addition to these there are—regimental schools, 12: Society for the Propagation of the Gospel ditto, 47; scholars, 2,358: Church Mission ditto, 93; scholars, 3,994: Wesleyan ditto, 89; scholars, 3,737: Baptist ditto, 38; scholars, 1,166: American ditto, 88; scholars, 4,062: Roman Catholic ditto, 35; number of pupils not stated: private seminaries, 177=1,032; which, with the government establishment, shows a total of about 2,000 schools; and allowing an average of 50 scholars, would indicate no less than 100,000 children under instruction.

THE PUBLIC PRESS is of small extent: there is an excellent book almanac, with numerous annual returns; and from the mission printing-offices several useful publications, in English and in Singhalese, are issued.

GOVERNMENT.—A governor and executive council of five official members; these, with the addition of four other officials, and six private gentlemen nominated by the Crown, constitute a Legislative Council, empowered to frame laws, subject to the disallowance of the Queen in council. There is a well-organised civil establishment, the members of which retire on pensions after a certain period. The civil list amounts at present to £25,000 per annum. The military force consists generally of two Queen's regiments of European infantry, a detachment of the royal artillery, some gun Lascars, and an excellent corps termed the *Ceylon rifles*, about 1,800 strong, composed of Malays, officered by Europeans. All these troops are, at any moment, available for service on the continent of India. The British officers receive certain colonial allowances. The amount disbursed from the island revenues, for military purposes, is £34,000; that defrayed by Great Britain, £50,000.

The revenue of the island was, in 1827, about £200,000; of which nearly one-half was derived from government sales of cinnamon and cinnamon oil—a system abandoned in 1836; in 1837, the revenue was

£371,994; in 1852, £411,806; in 1853, £412,835: expenditure in 1853, £386,519; excess of revenue over expenditure, £26,316. Of the revenue, the customs yielded, in 1853, £121,741: among the other chief items are, in round numbers—land returns, £45,000; rents (exclusive of land), £27,000; licences, £67,000; stamps, £25,000.

Cash balances in the treasury, May, 1854, £118,066; of which £78,733 was in coined money, and £38,303 in treasury notes.

The military expenditure defrayed from the British treasury, in 1854, amounted to—commissariat, £49,645; ordnance, £10,963 = £60,608. The colonists contribute £2,000 a month = £24,000 per annum, towards the pay of her Majesty's troops: making the total military charges, £84,608. The Malay rifle regiment is available for service in any part of the East; a portion of the corps has been recently doing garrison duty at Hong-Kong.

The amount expended on roads is large:—1848 to 1850 (inclusive), £121,597; 1851 to 1853 (inclusive), £167,745. The main road from Colombo to Kandy (75 miles), is a heavy expense; the repairs only, for eight years ending 1853, was £86,613. It is in excellent order; there is great traffic thereon, and the tolls for 1853 amounted to £15,877. Salary of the governor, £7,000: servants of the Crown all liberally paid. Local revenues for public purposes, £33,000.

TARIFF.—moderate, and devoid of differential duties. Goods, wares, and merchandise (including cotton and woollen manufactures, not otherwise discriminated), pay on importation five per cent.; metals at various rates—7s. to 18s. per ton; spirits, 5s.; wine in wood, 1s. 6d.; in bottle, 2s. 6d. per gallon; coal, books, and numerous articles, *free*.

Coins.—British monies.

Weights and Measures.—The *Singhalese* or dry measure is 4 cut chundrooms = 1 cut measure or seer; 4-6ths = 1 coornie; 2 1-12ths = 1 marcal; 2 = 1 parrah; 8 = 1 ammonam; 9 3-8ths = 1 last.

The weight of the parrah measure, according to the custom-house account is, for coffee, from 50 to 35 lbs.; pepper, 27 to 30 lbs.; salt, 52 to 55 lbs.; paddy (unhusked rice), 30 to 33 lbs.; rice, 42 to 46 lbs.; the Kandy or Bahar = 500 lbs. avoirdupois, or 461 lbs. Dutch troy weight.

Weights of ozs., lbs., &c., are also used throughout the island, British standard. A bale of cinnamon contains nearly 92½ lbs.

Liquid Measure.—2 half-drams = 1 dram; 6 half-drams = 3 drams = 1 half-pint; 12 half-drams = 6 drams = 2 half-pints = 1 pint; 24 half-drams = 12 drams = 4 half-pints = 2 pints = 1 quart; 48 half-drams = 24 drams = 8 half-pints = 4 pints

= 2 quarts = 1 half-gallon; 96 half-drams = 48 drams = 16 half-pints = 8 pints = 4 quarts = 2 half-gallons = 1 gallon; 10,560 half-drams = 5,280 drams = 1,760 half-pints = 880 pints = 440 quarts = 220 half-gallons = 110 gallons = 1 pipe; 14,400 half-drams = 7,200 drams = 2,400 half-pints = 1,200 pints = 600 quarts = 300 half-gallons = 150 gallons = 1 leagner, or legger.

Long Measure.—Three barley-corns make 1 inch; 4 inches make 1 hand; 12 inches make 1 foot; 3 feet make 1 yard; 5½ yards make 1 rod, pole, or perch; 4 perches make 1 chain of 100 links; 40 poles or perches make 1 furlong; 8 furlongs make 1 mile; 69½ miles make 1 degree.

Land Measure.—Nine square feet make 1 square yard; 30½ square yards make 1 square perch; 40 square perches make 1 square rood; 4 square roods make 1 acre; 640 acres make 1 square mile.

Kandian Land Measure.—Eight lahas make 1 coornie; 10 coornies make 1 peyla; 4 peylas make 1 ammonam; a coornie is equal to 10 15-16ths square perches; a peyla is equal to 2 square roods, 29½ square perches; an ammonam is equal to 2 acres, 2 square roods, 37½ square perches.

TRADE.—Maritime commerce has largely increased, as shown by comparing two periods:—Imports of goods, 1828, £329,933; 1853, £1,181,149. Exports, 1828, £325,372; 1853, £979,874. Shipping inwards, tons, 1828, 60,070; 1853, 251,957.*

The trade with the United Kingdom, in 1853, was, in value—Imports, £218,000; exports, £671,000. Shipping to United Kingdom, 30,000 tons.

The export of some principal articles, at two periods, was—Cinnamon, 1828, 470,020 lbs.; 1853, 956,280 lbs.. Coffee, 1828, 4,669 lbs.; 1853, 37,172,752 lbs. Cocoa-nut oil, 1828, 173,420 gals.; 1853, 443,699½ Arrack, 1828, 645,102 gals.; 1853, 170,000. Rice and paddy, 1853, £515,182; coir, 1853, 37,512 cwt.½

The coffee exported, in 1852, was 322,994 cwt.; value, £637,595. Cocoa-nut oil, for the manufacture of candles and other purposes, has also largely augmented.

In 1854 the imports amounted to £2,597,328, of which £1,371,955 was specie; of this there was re-exported £682,807; and of goods, £325,542; leaving about £900,000 worth for the consumption of the island. Shipping, inwards, 325,656 tons: of the total imports, £417,219 in value were from Great Britain, and £2,070,860 from India and other British possessions.

The produce of Ceylon exported in 1854 was, in declared value, £1,236,938; of this, total to Great Britain, £962,572.

Among the principal articles of produce thus exported, the following may be enu-

* For 1852. † For 1852. ‡ For 1852.

merated:—Coffee, 410,000 cwt.; value, £853,000: cinnamon, 787,000 lbs.; value, £15,000: cocoa-nut oil, 1,200,000 gals.; value, £150,000: cocoa-nut kernels, 52,000 cwt.; value, £30,000: cocoa-nuts, 1,870,000; value, £1,400: coir-rope, 46,000 cwt.; value, £31,700: coir-fibre, 10,000 cwt.; value £11,000: jaghery (a coarse sugar), 34,500 cwt.; value, £1,700 (showing the value of articles, the produce of the cocoa-nut-tree alone, about £228,000): tobacco, value, £14,000: timber, value, £12,000: ebony, 7,000 cwt.; value, £2,000: pepper, 4,000 cwt.; value, £5,000: plumbago, 17,400 cwt.; value, £4,000: arrack, 30,000 gals.; value, £1,700: Ceylon brandy, 4,000 gals.; value, £1,500: Ceylon rum, 26,500 gals.; value, £2,000: sugar, value, £3,700: areka-nuts, 45,000 cwt.; value, £32,000: coorries (small shells, used as coin in India and other countries), value, £10,000: cotton-wool, £11,600: tobacco, £44,000; and horns, in value, £4,000.

The live stock in the island, in 1854, consisted of—horses, 2,675; horned cattle, 669,991; sheep, 37,427; goats, 43,353. Number of acres in cultivation, 738,318; ditto uncultivated, 5,373,413.

VEGETABLE PRODUCTIONS.—From Tangalle to Chilaw, a distance of 135 miles, it is nearly one continued grove of cocoa-nut, bread-fruit, and jack fruit-trees. Cotton grows well; whether Nankin, Bourbon, or Brazil, the buds are ripe within four months after the seed is sown.

Every village or hut has its patch of sugar-cane and tobacco; the latter, in many parts of the island, yielding a delicious aroma. Coffee grows luxuriantly, and is of excellent quality. The pepper vine is found all over the island. Cardamom plants are equally plentiful. The much-sought-after areka-nut is of the finest species, and unequalled in any part of the East. The rice of Ceylon has a richness of flavour I have never found in any other country. Teak forests abound, and excellent masts and yards of the largest size are everywhere procurable. Calamander, ebony, satin, rose, sappan, iron, &c., and other rare and beautiful cabinet woods, are in great profusion. The jack-tree is of great size, very umbrageous, and of magnificent appearance, with its dark-green foliage and abundance (100 to 150) of fruit, weighing each 10 to 50 lbs. The rough green-rinded husk contains a great number of kernels, each half the size of a pigeon's egg, embedded in a luscious, yellow, viscid substance, much prized by the natives as a delicacy: the kernels roasted are not unlike chestnuts, and they constitute a main ingredient in the excellent Ceylon curries. The jack wood is valuable for house furniture and other domestic purposes: it resembles the common sort of mahogany. The *talipot* is another of the remarkable trees of an island whose vegetation is more varied and rich than any other country I have visited. This singular palm rises perpendicularly

to a height of eighty or even a hundred and twenty feet, and is crowned by a pyramid of white plumes, which give an addition to the altitude of about twenty-five feet. The leafless trunk has a girth of seven or eight feet near the ground. When about twenty years of age the leaf is in perfection, fifteen or sixteen feet in width, and with the petiole or foot-stalk twenty-five feet in length: it folds like a fan; is used as an umbrella, for thatching houses, and making tents or temporary habitations; prepared and cut into strips, two or three inches broad and thirty inches long, they form the Singhalese books, which have lasted for many centuries. The talipot attains maturity at about eighty years, and its dissolution is then preceded by shooting up a great spike, which envelopes numberless flowerets. Groves of Palmyra palms surround the villages to the northward of the island, and like the cocoa palms in the south, are useful to the peasantry in seasons of drought.

It has been calculated that along the coast between Dondra Head and Calpenty (184 miles) there are ten million cocoa-nut trees.

The *laurus cinnamomum*, although cultivated in many tropical places, has its principal habitation in Ceylon, which is capable of yielding a sufficient supply for every country in Europe: the tree whence the cinnamon bark is derived grows to the height of from fifteen to twenty feet, with an irregular and knotty stem, branchy and ligneous roots, fibrous and inodorous wood; *external* bark rough, thick, scabrous, and of an ash colour; inner bark reddish (the young shoots are often delicately speckled with dark-green and light-orange colours); branches umbrageous, inclining horizontally and downwards; leaves oblong and in pairs, from six to nine inches in length, and three broad, petiolated; colour, dark-green; flowers clustered on one peduncle, white, wanting calyx; smell resembling a mixture of rose and lilac; fruit an oval berry, larger than a black currant; receptacle thick, green, and hexangular. The roots have the pungent smell of camphor, and the delicious odour of cinnamon, yielding camphor by distillation; the leaves have the taste of cloves; the berries, when boiled, afford an unctuous substance like wax, which has an agreeable odour, and was formerly used as candles exclusively by the Kandian court. Cattle of every kind eagerly feed on the luxuriant foliage, while pigeons, crows, and other birds, devour the berries with avidity. The industry of man is employed on the bark, the varieties of which depend on the nature of the soil, the mode of cultivating and peeling, and on the age and healthiness of the plant. About 2,000 acres of land are laid out in cinnamon plantations in Ceylon, and about 30,000 persons employed thereon. The *stripping* of the trees begins in May and ends in October: the peelers (chalias, a distinct caste in Ceylon) commence the process by striking a sharp bill-hook into a shoot which seems sufficiently ripe; if on opening the gash the bark separates gently, it is fit for decortication; if otherwise, the gash is carefully closed, and the sucker left for future examination. The shoots found ready for immediate use (generally from three to five feet long, and three-quarters of an inch in diameter) are cut down, conveyed to sheds, and there cleared of leaves and twigs; by means of two longitudinal slits the bark is peeled off in semicircular slips; a sufficient number of these being collected, the sections are placed in close contact (as two quill-halves would be laid one within the other), and the

whole bundle is firmly pressed and bound up together for twenty-four hours, until a degree of fermentation is produced, which facilitates the removal of the cuticle; subsequently the interior side of each section of bark is placed upon a convex piece of wood fitted to its size, and the epidermis, together with the green succulent matter carefully scraped off (if any of the outer pulpy substance be allowed to remain, the cinnamon has an unpleasant bitterness); a few hours after the removal of the cuticle, the pieces are again placed in each other, and the bark in drying gradually contracts and rolls itself into a quill-like form. During the first day it is placed under shelter on open platforms; afterwards it is thoroughly dried in the sun, and made up into bundles of about thirty pounds' weight. A plantation requires to stand seven or eight years before yielding produce; the tree is least advantageously multiplied by seeds—layers and shoots, or transplanted stumps, are the best means of propagation.

PEARL FISHING has been carried on in the Gulf of Manaar from time immemorial. The Dutch were interrupted in this pursuit by a quarrel with the native authorities on the Coromandel coast, who then prevented the divers resorting thither. For about five-and-twenty years the trade was stopped, but resumed by the British in 1796, when a fishery was announced, and rented for £60,000; in 1797, for £144,000; in 1798, for £192,000: the next year it fell to £30,000, the pearl oysters having been all destroyed. In 1806 the farming out of the produce was resumed, when it yielded £35,000, and was continued with varying success, giving sometimes a revenue of £40,000; at others, of £25,000; until, twenty years since, when government prevented any more search, to give time for the reproduction of the pearl oyster; during this year (1855), the pursuit has been recommenced, with good prospects of success.

The pearl banks, according to Dr. Ruschenberger, are formed by coral ridges from six to ten miles off shore: their general depth is from five to seven fathoms; but it is on the banks of Arippo, where the coral rising nearly to the surface of the water, forms a shelter against the violence of the monsoons and currents, that the pearl oyster chiefly arrives at perfection. The young oysters, when they first escape from the egg, are seen floating about the sea in immense clusters; a little increase in size and solidity makes them sink to the bottom, where they immediately attach themselves to the rocks by means of a beard with glutinous matter secreted from it. There they remain in security until age has enfeebled the fibres of the fastening, or deprived it of adhesiveness, and then they drop from their coral supports and lie in heaps on the sandy bank beneath. The pearl-divers say that the oyster is about six years and a-half old when it drops from the rock; it is supposed to arrive at perfection in seven years, and to die soon after. During their clinging period they accumulate on the rocks in heaps, sometimes eighteen inches or two feet deep. The best pearls are generally found in the most fleshy part of the oyster, near the hinge of the shell, but they are not confined to any part of the fish. Instances have occurred of a single oyster containing above sixty pearls; yet the rarity of these treasures is manifest from the fact that oysters cost less at Arippo during the fishery than at Faversham or Colchester.

During the calms of November the banks are examined by experienced officers, and samples of the oysters are forwarded to the seat of government.

If the result of the examination prove favourable, then the fishery is announced by an advertisement, stating when and on what bank it is to take place, how long it is to continue, and how many boats will be allowed to engage in it. These boats are of very rude construction, generally from eight to fifteen tons burthen, and without decks. They leave the shore at midnight, favoured by the land winds, and anchor near the government guard-vessel and the fishing bank. A little after dawn in the morning a signal is given for the diving to begin, and a gun is fired at noon, on which it ceases. The following description of the mode of proceeding was written by Dr. Ruschenberger, on the spot.

"The crew of a boat consists of a Tindal or master, ten divers, and thirteen other men, who manage the boat and attend the divers when fishing. Each boat has five diving-stones (the ten divers relieving each other); five divers are constantly at work during the hours of fishing. The weight of the diving-stone varies from 15 to 25 lb., according to the size of the diver; some stout men find it necessary to have from 4 to 8 lb. of stone in a waist-belt, to enable them to keep at the bottom of the sea, to fill their net with oysters. The form of a diving-stone resembles the cone of a pine; it is suspended by a double cord.

"The net is of coir-rope yarns, eighteen inches deep, fastened to a hoop eighteen inches wide, fairly slung to a single cord. On preparing to commence fishing, the diver divests himself of all his clothes, except a small piece of cloth; after offering up his devotions, he plunges into the sea and swims to his diving-stone, which his attendants have slung over the side of the boat; he places his right foot or toes between the double cord on the diving-stone—the bight of the cord being passed over a stick projecting from the side of the boat; by grasping all parts of the rope he is enabled to support himself and the stone, and raise or lower the latter for his own convenience while he remains at the surface; he then puts his left foot on the hoop of the net and presses it against the diving-stone, retaining the cord in his hand. The attendants take care that the cords are clear for running out of the boat.

"The diver being thus prepared, he raises his body as much as he is able; drawing a full breath, he presses his nostrils between his thumb and finger, slips his hold of the bight of the diving-stone, and descends as rapidly as the stone will sink him. On reaching the bottom he abandons the stone, which is hauled up by the attendants ready to take him down again, clings to the ground, and commences filling his net. To accomplish this, he will sometimes creep over a space of eight or ten fathoms, and remain under water a minute; when he wishes to ascend he checks the cord of the net, which is instantly felt by the attendants, who commence pulling up as fast as they are able. The diver remains with the net until it is so far clear of the bottom as to be in no danger of upsetting, and then begins to haul himself up by the cord hand over hand, which the attendants are likewise pulling. When, by these means, his body has acquired an impetus upwards, he forsakes the cord, places his hands to his thighs, rapidly ascends to the surface, swims to his diving-stone, and by the time the contents of his net have been emptied into the boat he is ready to go down again.* One diver

* A diver who descends four to eight fathoms usually remains under water for a minute; the longest period noted by Master Attendant Stuart was 87 seconds: the ex-

will take up in a day from one to four thousand oysters. They seldom exceed a minute under water; the more common time is from fifty-three to fifty-seven seconds; but when requested to remain as long as possible, they can prolong their stay to something more than eighty seconds. They are warned to ascend by a singing noise in the ears, and finally by a sensation similar to hiccup."

The divers have much faith in a person called the shark-charmer, and many of them will not descend unless he be present: he is therefore paid by government. One-fourth of the oysters taken up belong to the divers, the remainder are disposed of by public sale. The pearl oysters are sold to speculators at prices varying from 14s. to 120s. per 1,000. The number of large pearls found is very limited compared with the mass of seed and defective gems, which are frequently pounded and used as an ingredient in a highly-prized electuary. They are also burnt into chunam or lime, and masticated by the wealthy with betel-leaf and areka-nut.

ANIMALS abound, from the gigantic elephant to the many-coloured chameleon; indeed earth, air, and water are instinct with life. The elephants of Ceylon have long been famed for their size and docility; but some writers assert that the African species is the larger. I have, when traversing parts of Ceylon and districts of Africa, had ample opportunities of comparing both beasts in their wild state.

The Asiatic quadruped generally stands higher than any I ever saw in Africa; the head is not so large, neither are the limbs so unwieldy; and according to the respective accounts of those who catch and domesticate them, the former is a much more valuable animal than the latter to man. Though still numerous in Ceylon, these extraordinary creatures will doubtless disappear before cultivation and civilisation. They have been for some time used in government works, in drawing timber and stones for bridges, and in conveying the baggage of a regiment when on the march, a duty for which their sure-footedness over the mountains, no less than their great strength, renders them peculiarly adapted.

The tiger of Ceylon is a formidable and destructive animal, and so bold that it has been known to come into a bazaar and snatch off some unfortunate coolie, or seize on an European soldier's child while the mother has been spreading out her washed clothes on the hedge opposite her dwelling. The buffalo in its wild state is also a very dangerous opponent, particularly if his antagonist wear a red coat or jacket. The elk assimilates in appearance to the fossil remains of those found in Ireland. Deer of every variety are plentiful, and their flesh, when

preserved in honey for two or three years by the wild Veddas, forms a feast which a London alderman once tasting would never forget.

Snakes are numerous; but of twenty different kinds, examined by Dr. Davy, sixteen were found harmless. The *tic polongo* of the *coluber* species is the most deadly in its poison; I have seen a powerful dog die in fifteen minutes after being bit, and a fowl in less than three minutes: the *cobra capello*, *carawalla*, and three or four others, are nearly equally fatal. The natives say the *tic polongo* lies in wait on the roadside to dart out on travellers; my observations led me to believe such is really the case. A large snake called the *pimberah* exists, the length of which is thirty feet. While travelling through Ouva and the central provinces, I have been assured by the Mohanderems of the districts, particularly towards Ruanwelle, of the existence of boa-constrictors of more than thirty feet in length. The alligator is found in most rivers, and the jackal in every tope; the mountain provinces are infested with a small leech, that clings with peculiar tenacity to the bare flesh, and draws much blood; its bite, acting on a diseased system, is productive of considerable after-suffering.

Wild peacocks are abundant in the interior. The jungle cock is a splendid bird, equal, if not superior, in plumage to the golden pheasant. The quail, snipe, and woodcock of the upper districts would please any epicure, and a fish gourmand, whether on the coast or inland, need never feel satiety, if variety and exquisiteness of flavour could ensure appetite. The beef is small, but sweet, and the mutton of Jaffnapatam almost equal to "South Down."

The resources of this fine island are as yet but very imperfectly developed: numerous valuable oils, resins, dye-stuffs and woods, and various peppers, cardamoms, spices, and drugs, are produced naturally, and require but rude labour for their preparation. An excellent botanic garden has been formed for the trial of various tropical products; and as the island has abundance of waste land, plenty of cheap labour, and security for life and property, skill and capital are alone wanting to make this fine colony one of the most lucrative tropical estates belonging to the Crown of Britain; to which it is no expense, but, on the contrary, a source of profit and advantage.*

per cent can descend 14 fathoms—84 feet; but the superincumbent pressure is dangerous to life. A fortunate diver may bring up 4,000 oysters a day, and if pearls abound his share would average 9s. But the fishery is a lottery; one oyster may contain 150 seed-pearls—and 150 may be opened in vain.

* Sir J. E. Tennent, in his report to the secretary of state in May, 1847, states, that "in Ceylon agriculture, in all its branches, must be regarded as an art almost unknown. Notwithstanding all its advantages in variety of soil, gradations of temperature, and adaptability of climate, the cultivation of rice may be said to be the only successful tillage of the natives. And yet with the favourable circumstances alluded to, and the expanse of surface to be applied, it is impossible to foresee the extent to which the productions of nearly every other country might be domesticated and extended throughout this

island. In the highlands and mountain regions, and particularly in the wooded valleys and open plains which are found at an elevation of from three to seven thousand feet, there is an encouraging field for the introduction of most of the *grains and vegetable productions of Europe*; and from the limited experiments which have been made up to the present time, there is good reason for believing that more extended operations would be attended with very beneficial results to the colony. In this conviction, the government has had numerous applications for lands in the hills suitable for the rearing of stock and European crops, for which a ready market would be found in the coffee districts and the towns and villages of the central province; and the intimation of your lordship's readiness to permit the leasing of lands for these purposes is likely to give a rapid extension to such undertakings."

SECTION II.

MAURITIUS, OR ISLE OF FRANCE AND ITS DEPENDENCIES.

MAURITIUS, or, as it is usually termed, *Isle of France*, is situate in the Indian Ocean, forty leagues to the N.E. of the Isle of Bourbon, and 160 from the great island of Madagascar, between the parallels of $19^{\circ} 58'$ and $20^{\circ} 32'$ S. lat., and the meridians of $57^{\circ} 17'$ and $57^{\circ} 46'$ E. long. It is nearly elliptical in form, measuring in length about forty miles* from north to south, and thirty-two from east to west, and comprises an area of 432,680 superficial English acres, or 676 square miles.

The island was discovered in the year 1507, by Don Pedro Mascarenhas, a navigator of the Portuguese government in India, under the orders of Governor Almeida. Mascarenhas named the island *Cerné*.† The Portuguese do not seem to have made any settlement during the period they were masters of the island, which comprehended almost the whole of the 16th century; but they placed some hogs and goats on *Cerné* and Bourbon, to furnish food in the event of any of their vessels being wrecked thereon.

In 1598, the Dutch admiral, Van Neck, at the head of a large squadron, landed on and took possession of *Cerné*, which he named *Mauritius*, in honour of the Prince of Orange. The Hollanders did not, at this time, settle permanently on the Mauritius, but occasionally touched there to water. Fifteen years later, Captain Castleton, the commander of an English ship, visited the island, which he found still uninhabited; and thus it continued until some pirates in the Indian seas located themselves on its shores; but at what precise period, it is impossible to say.

In 1644, the Hollanders erected a fort at South-East Port, anticipating by a few days a French expedition from Dieppe.

In 1648, slaves were procured from the

French settlement in Madagascar,‡ and the usual course of enormities followed: many of the captives fled to the mountains, became Maroons, and harassed the whites (see "Jamaica" section of this work), who retired from the island. It was subsequently re-occupied for the benefit of the Dutch shipping to and from India; but ultimately abandoned to the hostile Maroons in 1712.

In 1715, the French from Bourbon having heard of the evacuation, sent Captain Du Fresne, R.N., to take possession, and name the territory *Isle de France*. These proceedings were approved in Paris, and the king ceded the island to the French E. I. Cy., under whose sway it remained from 1722 to 1767. The inhabitants, however, for a long time were chiefly composed of adventurers, refugees, or pirates, from all nations, and it was not until 1730 that the home government and the French E. I. Cy. began to pay attention to the island, by sending engineers and other persons to form a regular establishment; the real founder and father of the colony being M. de la Bourdonnais, who was sent out as governor-general of the Isle of France, Bourbon, &c., in 1734.

Previous to the arrival of this celebrated man (see "British India" section of this work, p. 247) in 1735, the French E. I. Cy. had been at considerable expense in maintaining the Mauritius, which was considered to be solely fit for a refreshing station for their ships, while Bourbon was made a great coffee plantation. La Bourdonnais, in order to benefit the company's finances, introduced the culture of the sugar-cane, established manufactures of cotton and indigo, attended to agriculture and commerce, defeated the Maroon negroes by arming a part against the remainder, founded a court of justice, made roads, fortified the coast,

* The greatest diameter of the oval is 63,780 yards, and its breadth 44,248 yards. Some estimate the length at 35, and the breadth at 20 miles.

† The denomination of *Cerné* was said to have been applied by Pliny to Madagascar, but it does not seem probable that the Roman historian was acquainted either with that island or Mauritius.

‡ Mr. Pridhave, in his useful work on this island, says that Pronis, the French governor, kidnapped a number of Malagashes who had settled under his protection, including some of the highest class of natives, and sold them to the Dutch.—(vol. i., p. 11.) Madagascar for many years supplied slaves to the Mauritius.

formed aqueducts, arsenals, batteries, fortifications, barracks, wharfs, &c., and in the eleven years during which his government lasted, changed the whole face of the country, laying the foundation of a state of prosperity which subsequent disasters, however, almost entirely destroyed.

The French nation had their attention more strongly directed to the island, when they witnessed its great utility in strengthening and succouring Admiral Suffrein, who was thereby enabled to injure materially the commerce of England in the East. The renewal of the charter, or rather the reformation of the French E. I. Co., in 1784, was carried through with a proviso that all merchant ships from France should be permitted to proceed thus far towards India, and that the islanders might prosecute trade with every possession of the French company, commercial intercourse with China being, however, forbidden. The transmission of ample annual supplies of European merchandise was guaranteed to the Mauritius, which now became an entrepôt for oriental commerce, and several mercantile factories were established.

As may be supposed, these measures gave incitement for the formation of a commercial depôt, rather than encouragement to an agricultural colony; but the population rapidly augmented, and the settlement proceeded successfully. The supreme control was entrusted to a governor and intendant, who acted in a most arbitrary manner; and the breaking out of the revolution in the mother country, in 1789, gave the signal to the restless and discontented community to declare in favour of a National Assembly, and endeavour to overthrow the established government. As the French revolution materially influenced colonial affairs, a brief narration of its results in this settlement may be desirable, in order to show the disadvantages arising from anarchy in a powerful and leading state.

Until the arrival of a ship from Bordeaux, in January, 1789, the Mauritius had been despotically governed; this vessel brought the exciting news of the great power usurped to itself by the National Assembly at Paris, and as the captain, officers, and crew, wore the tricoloured cockade, a similar emblem was soon generally adopted by the colonists, and advertisements posted in the streets, inviting all the *citizens* to form themselves into primary assemblies (after the example of those which had taken place in all the *communes* of France), in order to draw up memorials of complaints and demands.

General Conway, the governor, sent some soldiers

to arrest the young men who had caused the advertisements to be posted up, but the people collected in the square at Port Louis, liberated the prisoners on the road to the gaol, compelled M. Conway to wear the national cockade, and on the following day united themselves into a primary assembly, and constituted different authorities, to whose discretion they confided the interior government of the colony. At this crisis, M. de Macnamara, commander of the French marine in the Indian seas, arrived, and did not conceal his displeasure on being made acquainted with these insurrectionary proceedings. The soldiers of the 107th and 108th regiments, who formed the garrison of the island, following the example of the army in France, adopted the cause of the revolutionists. Macnamara thought it his duty to acquaint the minister of marine with the state of affairs. His intention was betrayed—a copy of the letter being sent to the barracks, the soldiers threatened summary vengeance, to execute which the grenadiers seized upon the boats and canoes, and proceeded to the flag-ship to seize the person of Macnamara, who ordered the cannon to be loaded and pointed; but the moment the insurgents approached and hailed the seamen in the republican style, the latter refused to defend their commander, and actually suffered him to be carried off as a prisoner to the self-constituted authorities then assembled in the church. These, with the desire of saving the brave admiral from the fury of the populace, after a few formal interrogatories, ordered him to be conveyed to prison, but thoughtlessly left him to be conducted thither by the soldiery. The admiral, on his way to confinement, passing the shop of a watchmaker of his acquaintance, rushed in at the door, and endeavoured to defend himself with his pistols; but the soldiers threw themselves on him, and almost instantly massacred him. The people now formed their Colonial Assembly, consisting of fifty-one members. M. Conway proceeded to France, and, in 1792, M. de Malartic, named by the king as governor-general, arrived at his post, and gave the sanction of the state to the laws of the assembly. Affairs might have now gone on quietly, but that the news of the power of the Jacobin clubs in France gave a stimulus to the discontented; and a revolutionary assemblage, called the *Chaumière*, was established, which soon overawed the constituted authorities. Such was the power of this club, that M. de Malartic was forced to grant its members a vessel to carry one hundred men to the contiguous isle of Bourbon, for the arrest of the governor, civil commissary, and commandant of the marine, who were to be conveyed thence as prisoners to the Isle of France, on the charge of having corresponded with the English. These functionaries were landed at Port Louis, marched by an armed deputation to the *Chaumière* club then sitting, where the president (formerly a police-officer) thus addressed them—“*The people accuse you, and the people will judge you!*” They were then fettered and conducted to a dungeon, where they remained six months. A guillotine was established by order of the *Chaumière*, and but for the prudence of the Colonial Assembly, in ordering that the prisoners of the Jacobins should be judged only by a court-martial, named by all the citizens of the colony, united in primary assemblies, each in his own district, much blood would, undoubtedly, have been shed by these unprincipled and infuriated men. Sufficient delay was gained to afford the assembly time to concert together, so that the choice of

members of the commission should fall upon upright persons. In spite of these precautions, the proceedings of such a club would have rendered the guillotine an object of well-founded terror; but at this moment the aspect of the political horizon was wholly changed by the tidings of the general decree of the French republic for the immediate abolition of slavery.

In a community of 70,000 persons, where upwards of 55,000 were slaves, such a summary order, without a word about pecuniary compensation, may well be supposed to have created alarm; the Jacobin club was annihilated, the guillotine removed from the public square, the prisoners set at liberty without a trial, and the late popular leaders, to the number of thirty, arrested, and sent on board a ship bound for France. The planters, with the news of what was occurring at St. Domingo continually arriving, knew not what steps to take; some proposed declaring the colony independent of the French republic, and others sought to temporise, at least by delaying the promulgation of the decree.

While deliberating (18th July, 1796), a squadron of four frigates, under Vice-admiral Serey, with two agents from the French Directory (named Baco and Burnel), reached Port Louis; the colonists protested in vain against the debarkation of the new functionaries, who, dressed in the directorial costume, landed in state, and proceeded to the Colonial Assembly, to take on themselves the government of the colony, in which they were to be aided by 800 men of the revolutionary army, and two troops of artillery, all brought from France. Before three days had elapsed, the menacing tone of the agents was such as to create general alarm: they threatened to hang the governor, and proceeded to enact various severe measures, but without promulgating their intentions respecting the slaves. At length, says Baron Grant, in his interesting narrative, "twenty young creoles devoted themselves to the welfare of the colony, and vowed the death of those instruments of republican despotism;" and eventually the agents owed their lives to the governor and assembly, by whom they were conveyed on board a ship (*Le Moineau*), with orders to be landed on the Philippine Islands, as the place most distant from France.

No stranger instance of the working of the revolutionary leaven can well be desired than the fact, that on the day after the *Moineau* sailed on her route towards the Philippines, the agents dressed themselves in their directorial costumes, harangued the ship's company, induced them to mutiny against the orders of the captain, and steer for France.

Meanwhile the colonists gave full vent to rejoicing over the dangers they had escaped, and the soldiers who had stood by the assembly were honoured and caressed in every place, while money and largesses were liberally bestowed on them. The troops brought by the agents threatened to prove dangerous, as they resolved on freeing the negro women who lived with them; but Governor Malartic contrived to ship them off for Batavia, under pretence of reinforcing the Dutch against the common enemy, the English. There now only remained in the island the skeletons of the two old regiments before mentioned, and the colony remained tranquil until May, 1798, when these soldiers also formed a plan of proclaiming liberty to the slaves, in order to frustrate which, the Colonial Assembly obtained an order from General Malartic for the two grenadier companies to embark on board the frigate *La Seine*, then ready to sail on a cruise. A rumour was raised

and extensively circulated among the troops, that the result of compliance would be either to place them in the power of Tippoo Sultan, with whose cruel character they were well acquainted, or to expose them to the destructive climate of Batavia. The grenadiers, influenced by these anticipations, refused to obey the order for embarkation, and induced the other companies to mutiny, take up arms, seize the field-pieces which were in their quarters, and even to break open the doors of the armoury where the cartouches and cartridges were kept. Fortunately the officers of the regiment restrained the fury of the men, and kept them from rushing out of their quarters in arms. In this crisis, the Colonial Assembly were not idle; they summoned every freeman capable of bearing arms, from all parts of the island, and at daybreak on the 25th of April, each one at beat of drum was at the post assigned him; a battery planted upon a hill commanded the court where the soldiers had been under arms the whole night, and twelve field-pieces, supported by the young national guard of the colony, advanced in four columns to attack the troops in their quarters. General Malartic then advanced at the head of the newly raised force, and again commanded the grenadiers to embark, which, however, they refused to do; the matches were lighted, and a bloody contest was on the eve of commencing, when the acting committee of the Colonial Assembly proposed that the two regiments should be permitted to proceed to France in the *Seine* frigate and a merchantman, and allowed until noon to make up their linen and knapsacks and depart; after some hesitation the soldiers consented, and a few hours later, the Mauritius was freed from 800 armed stipendiaries of the French republic. The colonists now sought for and expected peace; they had freed themselves from the agents and troops of the French Directory; and the assembly, renewed every year by the nomination of the citizens of the colony, was linked, as it was thought, with the happiness and prosperity of the colony. But disputes soon arose respecting the laws about to be established for the repayment of debts contracted in paper currency, the depreciation of which (as issued by the administrators of the French republic) was so great as to be but a *thousandth* part of the sum it nominally represented.

As soon as intelligence reached the island respecting the laws which the two governing councils of France had decreed, relative to the payments of the debts contracted in the paper currency, the creditors, who were greatly favoured by these laws, demanded the execution of them: the debtors, on the other hand, represented with great force and truth, that the circumstances in general under which the various engagements had been made in the colony being different from those which had taken place in France, it would evidently be unjust to apply the same arbitrary mode of settlement, when there was a manifest diversity in the conduct of previous proceedings. The Colonial Assembly, acting on principles of equity, was on the point of arranging these differences, when the creditors, to frustrate the aims of the assembly, blinded and maddened by self-interest, entered into a conspiracy on the 4th Nov. 1799, seized the guns, and loudly demanded of General Malartic to dissolve the obnoxious assembly. This demand the governor was obliged to comply with, in order to save the most distinguished members from being murdered on the instant. Several of the

confederates rushed forwards, and obliged the senators to escape by the back doors. This summary dissolution did not satisfy the malcontents: they compelled the general to sign an order for the imprisonment of twelve different members of the assembly, with a view of preventing, by any possibility, the passing of any law which should enact the reimbursement of the debts contracted during the course of a depreciated paper currency. The "*sans culottes*" now formed themselves into armed associations, and the creditors, whom they had aided in dissolving the Colonial Assembly, became in turn alarmed when they perceived the march of the country-people on Port Louis (the capital), to rescue it from the dominion of the *sans culottes*: the latter, finding themselves abandoned by the creditors, and being, like most men in a bad cause, weakened by internal strife, offered no resistance to the entry of the country national guard into the town; and the riots were concluded by shipping off the chief ringleaders for France. The Colonial Assembly having been dissolved, Governor-general Malartic, in conjunction with the primary assemblies of the colony, formed another legislative body (twenty-one members), less numerous than the former (fifty-one members), whose number had proved a source of much inquietude; the new members were in the proportion of fourteen for the country, and seven for the town,* nominated by the primary assemblies of each canton in the island.

From this period the colonists enjoyed tranquillity, and the cultivation of the island rapidly extended. Buonaparte saw at a glance its important position for the hinderance of British commerce; and under the government of General Decaen, with the aid of a strong naval squadron, commanded by Admiral Linois, the Mauritius assumed a leading part in the eastern hemisphere, to the great injury of our trade.

The Marquis Wellesley, when governor-general of India, in 1800, projected and fitted out an expedition destined for the conquest of the Mauritius and Bourbon, the command of which was offered to his brother Arthur, then Lieutenant-colonel Wellesley, who was to have assumed the governorship on their conquest. The expedition of the Indian army to Egypt took the place of that designed against the Mauritius, but it was urgently pressed on the home government by the marquis that no time should be lost in destroying the nest of French pirates which these islands harboured. In all their enterprises against British commerce, the French were materially assisted by a set of desperate

American speculators, who infested the whole of our possessions in the East: they brought fast-sailing ships to the Mauritius, fitted them out, met them at fixed stations, gave intelligence of the progress of all our trade; bought not only the cargoes of the prizes for the American markets, but the hulls of the ships to carry back to our own settlements; and there are strong reasons to believe collusive bargains were entered into in anticipation of the captures made in consequence of such intelligence: in short, the island became a rendezvous for free-booters of every nation to assemble at their ease, fit out privateers, and commit depredations on English property.

To put a stop to these proceedings, a strong armament of 12,000 troops, with twenty ships of war, was simultaneously dispatched from India and from the Cape of Good Hope, for the conquest of the Mauritius in 1810: a landing was effected some distance from Port Louis; and after the French troops and the national guard had suffered several repulses, a capitulation was entered into, and the island became a dependency of the Crown of Great Britain. At the peace of 1814, the possession was finally ceded to us, and it has since remained a colony of the empire, without any occurrence deserving of comment.

PHYSICAL ASPECT.—From whatever quarter the Mauritius be approached, its aspect is exceedingly romantic and picturesque;† the land rises from the coast to the middle of the island, and chains of mountains intersect it in various radii, from the centre to the shore: three principal ranges rise 1,800 to 2,800 feet above the sea; few presenting bare rock, except at their very summits.‡

Plateaux of several leagues in circumference, and of different elevations, form the districts of Moka and Pleins Wilhems. Several streams have their source among the mountains, running generally through deep ravines, pervious, however, to the breeze and to the rays of the sun.

The principal rivers are named *Port Louis, Lutanier, Pleins Wilhems, Moka, Rampart, Great and Little Black Rivers,*

† The following are the names and heights, in yards, of the principal mountains:—Long Mountain, flagstaff, 178; Port Louis, ditto, 332; the Pouce, 832; Pieterbooth, 840; Corps de Garde, 738; Rampart, 792; Trois Mammelles, 684; Bamboo, 644; Little Black River, 818; Post Mountain, 618; Morne Brabant, 566; Mountain of Savanne, 710.

* The population of Port Louis was then estimated at three-fifths of that of the whole island, which contained 48,000 slaves, and 8,000 Europeans and mulattoes.

† The Mauritius scenery depicted by Bernardin de St. Pierre, in *Paul and Virginie*, is strictly correct; but the narrative, charming as a fiction, has few claims on the score of truth.

Post, Creole, Chaude, Saranne, Tombeau; and about twenty others of less note.

Grand River rises in the interior of the island, takes its course through the hollow of a deep ravine, receives many tributaries in its progress, divides the district of Moka from that of Plais Wilhems, and falls into the sea, on the west side of the bay. In its passage several considerable cascades are formed, which, added to the great perpendicular height of the banks, varied with the richest foliage and abrupt masses of rock, present to the eye many picturesque and beautiful views. The stream itself is shallow, but navigable for boats for a few hundred yards before its entrance into the bay. The water is excellent, and conveyed to Port Louis by an aqueduct three miles in length. A pretty village, surrounded by many country seats, is built on both sides of the river, which is crossed by a bridge with five arches. The beauty of the scene is enhanced by a chain of mountains, of which the *Decouvert* forms one termination, the *Pouce* nearly the centre, and *Au Riz* the opposite limit; the whole constituting nearly a semicircle. Black River, situate on the west or leeward side of the island, and distant from Port Louis about nineteen miles, takes its rise from behind a chain of southerly mountains, after traversing a deep ravine at the foot of the Pétou; and flowing between them and the mountain called Black River, it passes over a pebbly bed with a gentle current (except in the wet season), and is barred where it joins the bay by a bank of sand and coral.

The two principal Ports are—*Port Louis*, to the north-west or leeward; and *Mahebourg*, or Grand Port, on the south-east or windward shore.

Port Louis (the seat of government) is a neat town, well laid out, and contains many handsome buildings, with good markets. The shops are numerous, and are characterised by a more European aspect than those of any other colony. The shipping lies close to the busy town, and adds to the picturesque of the scene. Behind Port Louis the *Champ de Mars* extends in a gradual slope

to the mountains; around this park there are many neat villas, shaded by groves of various trees. The buildings erected by the French are generally creditable to their taste. The government house is a large misshapen building, but commodious within. The town and its environs are encompassed by a chain of lofty eminences, except on the north-west side, which is bounded by the sea; the plain is about 3,700 yards in length, and 3,200 in breadth, divided, however, towards the centre by a ridge called the *Small Mountain*, which joins at right angles the great chain of the *Pouce* (so called from its resemblance to the thumb of a human hand), which is 2,496 feet above the sea. Further eastward, in the same chain, is the *Pieterbooth* mountain, 2,500 feet high, terminated by a natural obelisk of bare rock, surmounted by a cubical mass larger than that on which it is balanced, and looking like a pyramid, with an inverted cone on its summit: this extraordinary pinnacle was ascended by a party of four British officers on the 7th of September, 1832, and the ensign of England planted on the dizzy height, where never before flag waved, or human footstep trod.* The contiguous *Pouce*, whose summit is within 260 feet of the height of the *Pieterbooth*, was ascended by lieutenants Fetherston, Clark, and myself, in 1825.

The harbour of Port Louis has on its north-east Tonnelliers Point. It was formerly insulated, but, previous to the British capture, joined by a causeway to Port Louis, termed *Chaussée Tromelin*. The river *Latanieri* here enters the harbour in many streamlets.

Fort Blanc is at the opposite side of the harbour to *Fort Tonnelliers*; and the batteries on both sides command the entrance into the port.† *Flaeq* (a military post) is situate on the north-east coast, in an open, well-cultivated plain, the country rising gradually towards the interior, bounded by a chain of mountains from six to eight miles distant, and watered by *La Poste* river.

Port South-East has two entrances, but on account of the difficulty of getting out of

* A very interesting account of the ascent, written by Lieutenant Taylor, of the royal engineers, has been published in the Transactions of the Royal Geographical Society.

† During the war, four of our frigates attempted to enter Port Louis to cut out some Indianmen captured by the French vessels: they ran aground and were exposed to the cross-fire of the batteries; one

of their commanders (Captain Willoughby) would not allow his colours to be hauled down; and when his crew were all *hors de combat*, the British vessel was boarded by the French, and Willoughby was found sitting on the capstan, his arm dangling in its socket, his eye hanging on his cheek, singing "Rule Britannia!" Even thus maimed, the dauntless sailor fought until overpowered by numbers.

the harbour, it is not so generally practicable a haven as Port Louis; but is used by the coasting vessels. About five miles to the northward of Grand Port is situated the lofty eminence called *Leon Couché*. The *Bamboo* mountain, which is the principal height around the port, rises 966 yards above the sea.

There are several LAKES: the principal, called the *Great Basin*, is situated on the most elevated plain in the island, and surrounded by wooded heights, which attract the clouds, and feed the streams running from the lake, which is of considerable depth.

The CAVERNS are extremely curious, and appear like vast quarries of stone, originally resting upon earth which has since abandoned them, giving the semblance of vaults formed by human labour: they are all situated on gentle declivities. I entered one, accompanied by guides with torches; but after traversing a considerable distance, the men refused to attend me further, alleging that the dreary passage communicated beneath the ocean with the island of Bourbon. Although some distance from the sea, the roar of the waves was as distinctly audible as if they had been actually rolling over our heads.

GEOLOGY.—The appearance and composition of the island would indicate it to be of volcanic origin. The rocks are disposed in strata, which rise from the sea-shore, and form in the centre of the island an elevated plain, upon whose declivity are several rocky eminences. These may be regarded as the remains of an immense exhausted volcano, the sides of which have fallen in, either by the effects of a violent eruption or by an earthquake, leaving the firmly supported walls standing. The structure around consists of ironstone, and a species of lava of a gray colour, the soil produced from the decomposition thereof forming an earthy substance composed chiefly of argyl and an oxide of iron.

The tops of the mountains are in general indented with points like the comb of a cock; the few which have flat summits present the appearance of a pavement.

A bank of coral surrounds the shore for

the distance of a quarter of a league: where the coast is steep, rocks prevail, as at the *Quoin de Mer*, &c. Wells have been sunk forty to fifty feet near Port Louis, where nothing but a bed of flints was found, and a kind of clay which contained talc and lenticular stones; although excavated to the level of the sea, no coral was arrived at, nor any coral or shells discovered in the elevated parts of the island, though so plentiful on the sea-shore—a proof that the ocean has not covered the land, or, in other words, that it is not of diluvian origin: no trace of a volcanic crater, however, exists.* A mineral spring near Port Louis is much resorted to by invalids.

THE SOIL is in many parts exceedingly rich; in some places it is a black vegetable mould, in others a bed of solid clay or quaking earth, into which a stake of ten feet in length may be thrust without meeting any resistance. The surface of the plain at Port Louis is of coralline or calcareous rock, with a slight covering of vegetable soil: at St. Denis it is of a reddish hue, lightly spread over a stratum of stone; the Field of Mars is a bed of rich clay mixed with flints; but more generally the earth is of a reddish colour, mixed with ferruginous matter,† which often appears on the surface in small orbicular masses; in the dry season it becomes extremely solid, and resembles potters' earth from its hardness; after rain it becomes viscid and tenacious, yet it requires no great labour in cultivation. Many of the plains and valleys are strewed with huge blocks of stone, but there is no real sand in the island.

THE CLIMATE is salubrious;‡ there are four seasons; the first begins in May, accompanied by south-east winds, when squalls and rains occur; the second, with September or October, when the south-east changes to the north-west; the sun then approaches the zenith, and the atmosphere becomes genial: the rains and winds return again in December, when the third period commences; and this gives place in March to the fourth or dry season, which lasts for only about eight weeks. These are the seasons as regard the cultivator; but they

At Port Louis, and some of the other parts of the coast, there are flats occasionally overflowed by the tide: it may have been the malaria arising from these, aided by the peculiar state of the atmosphere, that the epidemic cholera raged in 1819. It is alleged that this fearful disease was brought by a trading ship.

* There is one at Bourbon which not unfrequently sends forth flames.

† This description of soil is found well adapted for the growth of the sugar-cane in the West India Islands. (See Jamaica, Montserrat, St. Kitts, &c.)

‡ There are no marshes or swamps on the island.

may be generally divided into two, when the winds blow from the south-east to south, and from the north-east to north, forming a kind of monsoon. The south-east gales, although they never exceed a certain degree of force, are always more or less strong and violent; they give a freshness to the air, yet, while they blow, vegetation is imperfect. The winds from the south prevail in winter, and are cold; east winds are infrequent, and generally accompanied by

abundant rain. The north-west and west winds are hot, often gentle, interrupted by calms, violent storms, and great rains. "Violent commotions in the atmosphere," says Dr. Burke, "have from long experience been generally observed synchronous, with the changes of the moon."

The following meteorological table will show the state of the climate at Port Louis, situated on the north-eastern, and probably the hottest side of the island:—

Months.	Thermometer.		Barometer.		Prevailing Winds.	Weather.			
	Maxi- mum.	Mini- mum.	Maxi- mum.	Mini- mum.		Days of Rain.	Rain.		Thunder.
							Inches	Dec.	
January	87	77	30	29	S.E. & N.W.	7, 10, 11, 17, 18.	8	47	1
February	87	79	30	29	—	7, 9, 12, 13, 15, 16.	10	19	—
March	85	78	30	29	N.W. & S.E.	Ditto.	10	4	3
April	85	76	29	29	S.E. & N.W.	Rain and tempests.	4	91	6
May	79	71	30	29	S.E. & N.W.	Ditto and cloudy.	—	85	—
June	79	73	30	30	S.E.	Cloudy.	—	57	—
July	75	71	30	30	—	Do. 18, 19, thunder.	—	56	—
August	77	72	30	29	—	1, 2, 5, 6, 15, rain.	1	59	—
September	79	70	30	29	S.E. & N.W.	2, 3, 6, 9, 20.	—	86	—
October	93	73	30	29	S.E. brisk.	None.	—	86	—
November	84	72	30	29	—	8, 9, 11, 22, 23, rain.	—	40	—
December	96	77	30	29	E. & S.E.	Showery.	—	—	1

At Black River Post the atmosphere is in general mild and dry, as the rains do not often reach the shore, for the lofty mountains in the neighbourhood attract the laden clouds. The months of September, October, and November, are dry and moderately warm; the mean of the thermometer 79, and the prevailing winds S.E., N.N.E., and N.W. In December, January, February, and March (which form the wet season), the heat is greatest; mean 86, winds N.N.W., W., and S.W. April, May, June, and July, cool and refreshing; mean 70, winds S. and S.E. in strong breezes. At the *Powder Mills* the mean heat throughout the year, is at sunrise 70, afternoon 86, and sunset 72. On the mountain eminences the climate is that of a temperate region.

* Owing to the purity of the atmosphere, the sky at the Mauritius is of an intense blue; and the mountains stand out in bold relief. Connected with the atmospheric rarity, is the singular fact of a Frenchman (I think M. Fillifay by name) having discerned ships at sea some hundred miles distant. The time for observation was at morning dawn, when the observer proceeded to a gentle eminence, and looked in the sky (not on the horizon), where he beheld, *with the naked eye*, the object extended within his peculiar vision, which was of course extended or contracted according to the rarity of the atmosphere. The reality of this strange faculty was verified by several striking instances of correctness, viz., when the British vessels were assembling at Rodrigue (300 miles to the eastward of Mauritius), in 1810, to attack the island, M. Fillifay stated so to the French governor, and was, it is said, imprisoned for

Many of the E. I. Company's civil and military officers seek and find health at Mauritius; and I have myself, when suffering from an African fever, found the air, especially at Moka, elastic and invigorating.

The hurricane months are January, February, and March; but these tempests do not occur every year: their return is uncertain; nor does it appear that of late years they have been so numerous or so severe as they were wont to be. At Tonneliers battery a large 24-pounder was shown me, which, in a *coup de vent*, was blown from the rampart, whirled about in the air like a feather, and then dropped several hundred feet from its original position. The inhabitants travelling on the roads cannot keep their feet when the hurricane is blowing in its strength,*

raising false alarms: at another time he discerned what he described as *two vessels* joined together, or if there were such a thing, a *four-masted ship*; in a few days an American *four-masted schooner* entered Port Louis: again he saw an Indianman dismasted when nearly 400 miles from the island, and afterwards announced her to be erecting jury-masts and steering for the island, which proved to be the case. When at Port Louis I went on shore frequently with my brother-officers at noon, when M. Fillifay, in his ancient dress (somewhat like our Greenwich pensioners), rode on his stout mule down to the wharf to inform the port officer what vessels were in (*his*) sight. When asked, his answer would perhaps be, "a ship north-east 200 miles—nearly becalmed;—a schooner west, will make the land tomorrow;—two brigs standing to the southward," &c., &c.: his "report," which was invariably accurate,

The range of weather round the coast is thus shown; the average being deduced from the different military stations:—

Months.	Thermometer.		Weather.
	High- est.	Low- est.	
January . .	86	74	Warm and rainy, storms, sometimes thunder.
February . .	86	74	Violent gales, occasional hurricanes and thunder.
March . .	85	74	W.S.W. rain less frequent, heat moderate.
April . . .	88	73	Fine season, delicious temperature.
May . . .	82	70	Winds westerly, dry, and air fresh and agreeable.
June . . .	80	70	S.E. constant, rain in drops.
July . . .	79	64	Ditto, strong breezes by day, calm by night.
August . .	80	71	Rain more or less daily, mountain cloud-capt.
September .	79	68	Ditto, ditto, principally harvest weather.
October . .	80	65	Temperate, sometimes warm.
November .	83	71	Winds variable, heat increasing, storms.
December .	86	73	Ditto, ditto, sun vertical, heat moderated by clouds and rain.

POPULATION.—The first settlers at Mauritius and Bourbon were European pirates, who obtained wives from Madagascar. Their importance, in 1657, in the Eastern seas, may be estimated from the following occurrence, which took place at Bourbon, on which Isle the French East India Company had then an establishment. The Portuguese viceroy of Goa anchored one morning in the roads of St. Denis, and disembarked purposing to dine with the governor: he had scarcely landed before a pirate ship of 50 guns came into the roads, and captured his vessel; the victorious commander then went on shore, demanded to dine with the governor and viceroy, and seated himself at table between these gentlemen, declaring the latter to be his prisoner. Wine and rich cheer put the pirate in good humour: at length M. Desforges, the governor, asked what the viceroy's ransom was to be rated at? "A thousand piastres," was the reply; "that," said M. Desforges, "is too little for a brave fellow like you to receive from a great lord—ask enough, or ask nothing." "Well, well, I ask nothing," said the corsair; "let him as your guest go free;" which the viceroy instantly did, and the court of Portugal recompensed the French governor.

After the colonisation of Mauritius by the French, a great number of adventurers flocked to the island from Europe, and other

was written down at the captain of the port's office, M. Fillifay being a *pensionnaire* on the treasury. The practice or science was, he alleged, teachable;

places, and slaves were introduced from Madagascar and Mozambique; but at what precise period we have no record. It would seem that the island was more populous during the period prior to the French revolution, than subsequent to that event, as it is on record that, in 1792, 20,000 persons perished of smallpox in the Mauritius. In 1799, the population was stated by Baron Grant, at—slaves, 55,000; whites and mulattoes, 10,000: total, 65,000. The armed force, national guard, blacks and mulattoes, numbered 2,000; blacks and mulattoes (to serve as chasseurs), with the artillery, 3,000: giving a total of 5,000.

In 1767 the population was 18,777, of whom 3,163 were whites, and 587 free blacks; the remainder slaves: in 1787, whites, 4,372; free blacks, 2,235; slaves, 33,832 = 40,439; in 1797, whites, 6,237; free blacks, 3,703; slaves, 49,080 = 59,020; in 1807, whites, 6,489; free blacks, 5,919; slaves, 65,367 = 77,768; in 1817, whites, 7,375; free blacks, 10,979; slaves, 79,493 = 97,847; in 1827 there were whites, 8,111; slaves, 69,076; free coloured, 13,441 = 92,631; in 1832, slaves—males, 38,124; females, 24,932 = 63,056: total population about 99,000. These must have been somewhat vague estimates. In 1836 the numbers are said to have been—general population, males, 5,926; females, 14,485 = 20,411; negro apprentices (formerly slaves), males, 33,189; females, 20,602 = 53,791: total, 74,202. It is alleged that a large number of slaves were clandestinely introduced into the colony previous to emancipation; certainly there was a great waste of human life shortly before that period.

The compensation awarded to slave-owners by the British parliament, in 1834, was—for 1,404 claims on account of 26,830 predial slaves attached to the soil, £912,059; for ditto non-attached—claims, 1,077; number of slaves, 7,594—£262,732; for non-predial slaves, including tradesmen, overseers, domestics, &c.—claims, 4,909; number of slaves, 22,275—£811,307. The average rate of purchase was thus £38 per head.

When slave emancipation was decreed, the Mauritius government determined to attempt providing a supply of free labour by encouraging immigrants from British India. In 1834, the number introduced was seventy males; from year to year there was an augmentation of this valuable class from Calcutta, Madras, and Bombay, who were under indentures to labour a fixed number of years, and then to be conveyed back to their native country, partly at the expense of the local government. The statistics of this population movement stood thus between 1835 and 1852:—Increase by arrivals in twenty years was—males, 126,212; females, 20,365 = 146,577; by births—males, 5,836; females, 5,455 = 11,311. The decrease by departures—males, 31,912; females, 3,186 = 35,098; by deaths—males, 19,449; females, 3,157 = 22,606. This shows a severe mortality among an adult population, arising too probably from being overworked and under-fed. The rate of mortality varied from two to eight per cent. per ann.

and I understood that a lady was learning to announce vessels under the instructions of the far-sighted Frenchman.

STATE OF RELIGION AND EDUCATION IN THE MAURITIUS. 39

In August, 1846, the resident population amounted to 158,462, and the military and crews of the mercantile shipping, to 2,627 = 161,089. The last census shows the number of fixed inhabitants, by districts, at 180,823. Exclusive of Port Louis (38,000) the number of mouths to each square mile is 158.

Population by District Census on 20th November, 1851.

Districts.	Area in sq. miles.	General Population.			Ex-apprentices and their children.			Hindoos and other Indians.			Total.		
		Males.	Fem.	Total.	Males.	Fem.	Total.	Males.	Fem.	Total.	Males.	Fem.	Total.
Port Louis and Vincennes ^a	40	14,471	13,635	28,106	5,788	5,192	10,980	8,980	1,834	10,823	20,248	20,611	49,969
Pamplemousses, N.	44	3,141	2,909	6,050	3,684	2,901	6,585	6,319	1,424	7,743	13,147	7,231	20,381
South	44	981	808	1,789	1,064	757	1,821	6,630	1,415	8,045	8,675	2,980	11,655
Riviere du Rampart	58	1,432	1,266	2,698	1,467	1,179	2,646	8,732	1,954	10,686	11,631	4,399	16,030
Placq.	114	2,284	2,021	4,305	3,508	2,785	6,293	11,133	2,455	13,588	16,925	7,261	24,186
Grand Port.	112	2,994	2,308	4,972	3,014	2,365	5,379	7,182	1,549	8,731	12,800	6,282	19,082
Savanne.	92	692	575	1,267	1,096	1,421	3,087	4,584	956	5,517	6,329	2,932	9,261
Black River.	95	845	807	1,652	1,246	1,499	3,415	4,106	888	4,994	6,899	3,194	10,093
Plains Wilhems.	71	1,385	1,128	2,513	2,955	2,285	5,242	5,157	981	6,138	9,499	4,374	13,873
Moka.	68	568	574	1,142	1,539	1,293	2,832	1,459	278	1,731	3,580	2,145	5,725
Total Residents	—	28,406	26,091	54,497	26,633	21,677	48,310	64,282	13,714	77,996	119,343	61,482	180,825

^a Including Grand River, Vallée des Pretres, and Rochebois.

Note.—The military population, not included in the above, consisted of—males, 1,515; females, 269 = 1,524; crews of commercial shipping, 1,159; grand total, 183,508. Total Indian population in 1854—males, 96,142; females, 25,131.

The number of pure white inhabitants is not stated. The classification of population according to country, shows, of the British race born in the United Kingdom, or their offspring—males, 1,264; females, 683 = 1,947; in British colonies—males, 1,373; females, 738 = 2,111; in France—males, 635; females, 242; their offspring—males, 313; females, 336 = males, 948; females, 578 = 1,526. Of Africans and their descendants, 102,993; Asiatics and ditto, 72,236; Americans, 35; not stated, 1,583. Proportions employed in commerce, trade, and manufactures, 20.2; agriculture, 7; other occupations, 21.7. Proportion of *insane* in Creoles, 9 in 10,000; Africans, 22; Hindoos, &c., 11. *Blind*—by classes, and to each 10,000—Creoles, 11; Africans, 66; Hindoos, 7. Number of deaf and dumb, 107; infirm, 3,214. In all the above there has been a progressive increase since 1846.

The number of apprentices (formerly slaves) in February, 1835, was—males, 18,049; females, 12,979 = 31,028; children born between 1835 and 1846—males, 8,604; females, 8,698 = 17,302. In November, 1851, this class of the population numbered—males, 26,653; females, 21,677 = 48,330, which shows an augmentation, since 1835, of 17,302. Had emancipation not taken place, the decrease would probably have been equal to the present increase.

STATE OF RELIGION.—We have no useful or cheering returns on this important subject. The different denominations of religion are stated in the census of 1851, to have been professed as follows:—Church of England, 904; Presbyterians, 71; Independents, 1,032; Protestant, not distinguished, 3,884; Roman Catholics, 93,561; Christians, not distinguished, 1,052; Mohammedans, 11,587; Hindoos, 48,838; Buddhists, 1,241; others, 3,487; non-baptized, 3,718; not stated, 10,338 = 180,823.

The ecclesiastical establishment paid from the public revenues, consists of a bishop and civil chaplain of the church of England, one minister of the church of Scotland, and a bishop and nine priests of the church of Rome: the bishop receives £720, and the priests £200 each per annum.

The statistics of education, in 1854, are thus shown:—

Denomination of Schools.	No.	Scholars.		Total.	Expenses.
		Males.	Fem.		
Government	23	1,441	448	1,869	£ 635
Church of England	2	69	20	89	—
Church of Rome	15	475	453	908	685
Private	32	1,160	1,056	2,156	—
Royal College	—	—	—	236	—
Total	70	3,085	1,977	5,318	5,320

This is a very small extent of instruction for youth, among a population of about 200,000. Allowing one in ten to be capable of receiving education, the number ought to be 20,000, instead of less than 6,000.

EDUCATION is little attended to by the planters; and, unhappily, our missionary societies have not extended their valuable labours to the Mauritius.

There are several newspapers—one in French, another in English, and a third in both languages, daily; one weekly, and one bi-weekly. A good almanac, with statistical and other information, is published annually.

GOVERNMENT.—A governor, the commander of the troops, the colonial secretary, and the advocate-general, form an *Executive Council*; these, with the addition of four official, and twelve non-official members appointed by the Crown, constitute a *Legislative Council*, which was organised in 1837.

Military Force.—A detachment of artillery, and two of H.M. infantry regiments. The officers receive island allowances in addition to their regular pay.

The revenue, in 1812, was £112,000; at the period of emancipation (1834), £170,000; it is now £370,000; of this sum, custom duties on imports yield £100,000; licenses and permits, £100,000; assessed taxes, £40,000; harbour dues, £16,000; registrations and mortgages, £16,000; postage, £3,000; fines and fees, £7,000; and other minor items. The local expenditure is less than the income by about £20,000. The ecclesiastical charges are but £5,500; education, £12,000; police and gaols, £26,500; judicial, £30,000; medical, £10,000; immigration of cool labourers, £50,000 (in 1854); colonial pay and allowances to military, £15,000; contribution towards military expenses, £20,000; roads, streets, and bridges, £12,000; pensions and retired allowances, £10,000; public works, £18,000. The remainder is devoted to the civil government. Salary of governor, £6,000. Municipal income of Port Louis, £23,000 per annum.

Coins.—Accounts kept in British money; all sorts of coins are in circulation.

Weights.—In the transactions with the military commissariat department, imperial weights are used. With this exception, the weights in use in this island are the same as they were in France before the revolution, viz.—100 lbs. French, *poids de marc*, equal to 108 lbs. English; and the same proportions in the subdivisions, which are the ounce, gros, and grains. 16 ounces make one pound, 8 gros make 1 ounce, 72 grains make 1 gros. The quintal is 100 lbs. French. The ton is 20 quintals. Sugar is reckoned per pound or per quintal; coffee, per bag of 100 lbs. (net French); cotton, per bale of 250 lbs. Rice is sold per bag of 150 lbs.

Measures.—In the transactions with the military commissariat department, imperial measures are used; but the measures in general use are French. The French foot is to the English in the proportion of 100 to 92.89, or in common practice of 16 to 15. 12 lines make 1 inch, 12 inches 1 foot, 6 feet 1 toise, 5 feet 1 fathom. The aune is 44 inches, and it is to the English yard as 9 to 7. Every kind of cloth is measured and sold in this island by the aune or ell. The velt is equal to 1 gallon 7 pints 4-5ths English, but it is always taken as 2 gallons in commercial transactions; it is by the velt that every liquid is measured here. 3 gills make 1 pint, 2 pints 1 quart, 4 quarts 1 gallon, 2 gallons 1 velt. Nine English quart bottles are generally considered equal to a velt, and 40 drams to 1 gallon. A cask measures 30 velt. The ton of sugar is 2,000 lbs. French; ebony wood, 2,000 lbs.; coffee, 1,400 lbs.; cotton, 750 lbs.; cloves, 1,000 lbs.; grain, 1,400 lbs.; liquids, 120 velt; square cut timber, 32 cubic feet; boards, 386 feet; shingles, 3,300. The arpent, or acre, is 100 square perches; the perch is 20 feet French. The tonnage of cases, 42 cubic feet measurement.

COMMERCE, during the French and English occupation of the island, has flourished,

* *List of fruits cultivated at the island of Mauritius*.—Mango, cherimolia, ramboutan, guava, plantain, lime, bergamot, jambosa, mabolo, celebres mangosteen, carambole, mammee, apple, jack, fig, Tartarian mulberry, voutac, grape, tamarind, sweet hovenia, custard apple, alligator pear, Otaheite apple, Chinese guava, lemon, citron, Seville orange, jar plum, sapadilla, European plum, bilimbi, date, quince, St. Helena almond, vovang, blackberry, pomegranate, carandas, Otaheite chestnut, sour sop, litchi, hog plum, pink guava, orange, mandarine,

as the Mauritius has been an entrepôt for the supply of goods to Madagascar, Africa, and other places. In 1833 (previous to the abolition of slavery), the value of imports and exports stood thus:—

Imports, 1833, £577,420; exports, £639,910; tons, 72,000; imports, 1853, £1,500,000; exports, £1,300,000; tons, 166,000.

The imports of goods in English ships from Great Britain, is about £150,000 per annum. Assuming the population to be now 185,000, it shows an importation at the rate of about £2 10s. per head annually.

Tariff.—Custom duties on manufactures of silk, 15; of woollens and leather, 10; cotton and all other textiles, 5—per cent. Paper, glass, hardware, cutlery, tea, and coffee, 10 per cent.; beer, 13s. per hogshead; per dozen bottles, 9d.; wine in cask, at the rate of 16s. per 30 gallons; in bottle, 2s. per dozen; spirits, 6s. per gallon; bacon, butter, cheese, ham, &c., 4s. per cwt. Unenumerated goods, ware, and merchandise, 6 per cent. *ad valorem*.

The climate and soil are adapted to the growth of various descriptions of tropical produce.* Sugar has long been the staple export of the colony; in 1812–13, the exportation averaged 700,000 (French); in 1820, 15,000,000; in 1830, 67,000,000; in 1832 (the highest year of production during the slavery period), 73,000,000; in 1836, 63,000,000—lbs. In consequence of the abundant supply of labour, the sugar cultivation has been more than trebled; in 1840–1, the crop amounted to 77,174,253; in 1854, to 250,000,000—French lbs. To furnish this large supply other species of culture have been neglected, and almost every article of food is imported. It is to be feared that it will be impossible to continue the production, as the land—of which there is but a limited extent available for sugar—cannot be replenished after the abstractions caused by the cane, even by the aid of the rotation of crops recently adopted, or the most plentiful supply of guano. Despite vacuum-pans and centrifugal machines, a severe reaction may, ere long, be looked for in the trade of the Mauritius, unless other articles of export be developed, for which the soil and temperature are adapted.

DEPENDENCIES OF THE MAURITIUS—RODRIGUE, SEYCHELLES, &c.—The island of Rodrigue, the *Seychelles islands*, the *Amirante isles*, *Diego Garcia*, &c., are subject to the authority of the governor of the Mauritius. Rodrigue, about 300 miles to the eastward of Mauritius, in 19° 13' S. lat., (about twenty-six miles long by twelve broad), is mountainous, or, more properly speaking, a succession of hills, clothed with verdure;

combava, Brazil cherry, mangosteen, Madagascar plum, cocoa-nut, cashew-nut, bread-fruit, sorindi, jubeb, raspberry, grenadilla, cantor, wampi, sugar apple, longane, Indian plum, papaya, shaddock, Madagascar orange, rose apple, sapota, Cochinchinese ditto, Chinese plum, double cocoa-nut, peach, rima, Japan medlar, pine-apple, strawberry, cacao, Indian fig, cookia. *Spices*.—Pepper, camphor, tea, sago, nutmeg, clove, allspice, cinnamon, coffee, betel-nut, &c.—Wages of predial labour, 13s. to 16s. a month. Bread, 2½d. to 3d.; meat, 7d. to 1s. per lb.

the valleys are full of rocks and stones, which cover the surface to a great extent, leaving, however, a large portion of fertile soil. This is cultivated by a few French colonists from the Mauritius, with which a constant intercourse is kept up in transporting turtle from the former to the latter. There is abundance of fish around, but it is singular that those caught outside the reefs in deep water are poisonous, and several sailors have died from eating of them. One sort taken near the island resembles a whiting, and from its destructive qualities is named by the French *mort au chien*.* The early French settlers narrate that they found eels of an exquisite flavour on the island, so large that one of them was a load for two men to carry. On the north side of the island there is a bay affording excellent anchorage, a secure shelter for ships of all dimensions,† and abundance of wood and water. The air is delightful, the water clear, the vegetation luxuriant. Rodrigue is useful as a haven for shipwrecked mariners,‡ and likewise as a cruising station.

THE SEYCHELLES OR MAHE ISLANDS, situate to the northward of Madagascar, between the parallels of 4° and 5° S. lat., were partially explored by M. Lazarus Picault, in 1743, by order of Mahé de la Bourdonnais, the famous governor of the Mauritius; but in all probability they were previously known to the Portuguese, as were the Amirantes, a low and comparatively insignificant group, eighty miles distant; if, however, the Portuguese saw them, it seems strange that they were not explored, as we should then have had an earlier account of the *coco de mer* peculiar to those islands.

The Seychelles capitulated to the English in 1794, after which their flag was considered neutral by the English and French, when belligerents: on the capture of the Mauritius, these isles were taken possession of as a dependency of that colony, and have since remained under the superintendence of an agent appointed by the governor-in-chief.

* The existence of poisonous fish has never been properly accounted for; we know of no birds or animals that are poisonous; even the most venomous snake, when decapitated, is good eating. Some think that the fact is owing to copper banks, on which the fish feed; but it is remarkable that those caught on the same bank are at one time poisonous and at another edible. Some sorts are, however, poisonous at all times, and I have seen a dog die in a few minutes after eating one. Mariners ought to reject fish without scales, unless they know them to

The size of the principal islands is thus shown:—

Names.	Acres.	Names.	Acres.
Mahe	30,000	Conception . . .	120
Praslin	8,000	Felicity	800
Silhouette . . .	5,700	North Island . .	500
La Digue	2,000	Denis	200
Curieuse	1,000	Vache	200
St. Anne	500	Aride	150
Cerf	400		
Frigate	300	Total acres . .	50,120
Mariane	250		

There are above fifteen smaller islands, resting on a bank of sand and coral.

MAHE, the chief island in the group, is sixteen miles long, and from three to five broad, with a steep and rugged granite mountain in the centre. The town of Mahé is situate on the north side, in a small glen, irregularly built, and containing some good houses; the principal persons being, however, in the environs. The scanty population, when I visited the group in 1825, was—whites, 582; free coloured, 323; and slaves, 6,058: total, 6,963. There is, however, a scattered population on many of the flat islands spread about those tranquil seas; sometimes on approaching one of these low verdant isles, the recent creation of the coral insect, we were surprised by a boat pushing off from the lonely shore, and a dark-coloured Frenchman, or Portuguese, would come on board our frigate, bringing welcome presents of eggs, milk, and fowls, at the same time declaring that the island was his estate, and that his family would receive us hospitably if we would land. On several of the Seychelles and Amirante group we found no human inhabitants, but abundance of hogs and goats, as also papaws, cocoa-nuts, and other edible fruit; indeed a cruise in the Seychelles archipelago is very charming; the beauty of the skies, the serenity of the atmosphere, the purity of the breeze, give a peculiar charm to the soft scenery around. The oldest resident of these peaceful isles never witnessed a gale of wind; but the sea-breeze is constant, and tempers the heat so as to divest a nearly

be good; and a silver spoon, if boiled with the fish, will turn black should it be noxious.

† The squadron which was collected from India and the Cape, for the conquest of the Mauritius, in 1810, rendezvoused here.

‡ A vessel from Bombay (the *Eldon*), laden with cotton, took fire at sea in October last (1834), and the crew, after being many days in an open boat, reached Rodrigue when almost perishing, and from thence the Mauritius. Cases have occurred proving the value of the island in time of war.

vertical sun of the ill effects of its fervid rays. I spent whole days wandering from island to island among the Seychelles group, and revelling in their romantic scenery, with no other protection from a tropical sun than a broad-brimmed straw hat, yet without feeling the slightest inconvenience, and with but little fatigue. The thermometer varies from 81° to 61° , its mean being 70° to 72° ; the healthiness of the station is indicated by the great age and large families of the inhabitants.

Although the bank on which this archipelago is situated is of coral formation, all the islands except two are of granite; huge blocks of which, generally piled up as it were in a confused mass, form their peaks, which are covered with verdure. Lieutenant (now Captain) R. Owen, R.N., and myself, with a party of seamen, ascended North or Fearn Island after two hours and a-half difficult climbing. Towards the summit, for many feet, there was nothing but huge blocks of granite, piled on each other as a number of paving-stones would be on an Irish *cearn*; several of these rocks were of the magnitude of a small-sized house, and some so nicely poised that they might be moved with the hand.

The Seychelles possess many excellent harbours, and being never visited by tornadoes, the neighbourhood is frequented by whalers who fill up their vessels rapidly with sperm oil. The inhabitants cultivate cotton of a superior quality, spices, coffee, tobacco, rice, maize, cocoa-nuts, &c., and carry on a lucrative trade in the numerous small vessels which they possess, in articles suited to the Indian, Mauritius, and Bourbon markets.* The vegetation around is extremely luxuriant; the most remarkable specimen is the *coco de mer*, so called because the nuts were found on the shores of Malabar, and on the coasts of the Maldive Islands, many years before the place of their growth was ascertained; each nut then sold for three or four hundred pounds, from its supposed medicinal quality. This fruit is confined in its growth to the Seychelles, and even there to two islands—Praslin and Curieuse. It springs from a species of palm, sixty to eighty feet high, with full leaves; from their junction hangs the nut, one foot long, eight inches thick, with a

light-coloured tasteless jelly in each of the compartments; the seed-vessel is about two feet long and three inches diameter, studded with small yellow flowers issuing from a regular projection, which resemble those of the pine-apple. The smell arising from the flower is by most Europeans considered intolerable, its offensiveness increasing the longer the flower is kept.

Various spices grow on Mahé, &c., such as the cinnamon plant, cloves, nutmeg, and pepper, which were introduced by order of M. de Poivre, the intelligent governor of the Mauritius, with a view of rivaling the Dutch in the Moluccas. The plantation† was tended with great care as a national undertaking, until, at a critical period, the French became apprehensive that the islands might be attacked by a British squadron, when orders were given by the governor of the Mauritius to surround the spice garden with bundles of dried faggots, and other combustible matter, and the moment a British vessel of war hove in sight, to set fire to the whole. A large vessel shortly after appeared off the island with English colours, the spice trees were immediately burned, and the ship of war came into Mahé harbour, with the *tricolour* flag, it being a French man-of-war that had used a *ruse*, to ascertain whether the islands had a British force on them. The feelings of the French, while the valuable plantations were being consumed, may be readily imagined.

Diego Garcia, about four degrees from the equator, is one of those numerous coral islands with which these seas abound. It contains plenty of turtle, and has a few residents from the Mauritius.

The Amirante and other dependencies are flat, and require no separate notice. The population (chiefly African) of the thirteen islands included under the name of Seychelles, was, in November, 1851—males, 3,626; females, 3,185 = 6,811: of these, Mahé contained 5,541; Praslin, 461; Ladigue, 442; the Amirantes, 30; Seven Isles, north-east of Madagascar, 61; Chagos Archipelago, 334; Rodrigue, 495; Agalega, 242; Cotiny, 28: total of these dependencies—males, 4,476; females, 3,525 = 8,001.

Should a British trade hereafter arise with the eastern coast of Africa, the Seychelles may become a useful entrepôt.

* Some ships are afraid to fish on this bank, the whale being very violent when wounded.

† The central position of the Seychelles for trade with the eastern hemisphere, is thus shown:—

Mahé to Madagascar, 576 miles; Comoros, 828; Mauritius, 928; Mombas, 930; Delagoa Bay, 1,860; Bombay, 1,680; Arabia, 1,230; Cape of Good Hope, 2,640 miles.

SECTION III.—ADEN.

THIS singular-looking, desolate spot, owing to its excellent harbour and position, has from an early date been an object of attraction for commercial pursuits. When Constantine reigned, it is said to have been a great city, and was honoured with the title of "Romanum Emporium." The Mohammedans assert, but produce no proof, that its citizens were honoured by the preaching of Mohamet.*

For the following account of Aden, and its annexation to the British Crown, I am indebted to Captain Haines, the really estimable though unfortunately governor of the settlement when I visited it in 1845:†—

By the "doomsday-book" of Lahidge it appears that about A.H. 1141 [A.D. 1763], the Sheikh Foudthel ibn Ali ibn Foudthel ibn Sellah ibn Selim, declaring himself the chief of the Abdali tribe, and throwing off all subjection, prepared, in concert with the neighbouring tribe of Yaffai, to make himself master of Aden, stipulating first, that they should enjoy the revenues of the port alternately.

A.H. 1148, Aden fell into the hands of these two chiefs; and before six months had elapsed, the Sheikh of Lahidge, whose craftiness fully equalled his courage, turned his colleague out of the place, and made himself sole governor. His rapacity and extortion extinguished the few sparks of commercial enterprise yet remaining, and from this period may be traced the rapid downfall of Aden.

Sultan Foudthel ibn Ali was treacherously killed by the Yaffai, A.H. 1155, leaving two sons, Abdel Kerim and M'Heussan, and two daughters. He was succeeded by Abdel Kerim, who reigned seventeen years, during which Aden was governed by a favourite slave. This sultan deservedly bore the name of a wise and benevolent man, but the spirit of indolence prevented his people from profiting by the

weakness of his rule. He died 1172, leaving five sons, viz., Abdul Hadi, Foudthel, Nasser, Ali, and Ahmed. Ali was killed by the fall of a stone on his head from one of the houses in Aden; Ahmed died early in life; and Abdul Hadi succeeded to the throne of his father. Tradition relates, that during the reign of Sultan Kerim, a dispute with reference to some ground took place between the Sayud of Hydros and the sultan, which ended in one of the sons of the Sayud being treated with great severity. Fired with the insult to his sacred calling, the Sayud implored the vengeance of the Almighty on the tyrant, and prayed that he might never be blessed with posterity. His prayer was heard: the elder sons of the family had no children, and the "fukht" or throne of the Abdali chief was occupied by the descendant of his younger son, M'Heussan Foudthel ibn Ali, who, in the year 1190, was killed by order of his nephew Abdel Hadi. In this year the present Sultan of Lahidge was born. On the death of Sultan Abdel Kerim, A.H. 1172, his eldest son Abdul Hadi succeeded him, and reigned nineteen years, during which his cousin, Foudthel M'Heussan, caused him great trouble and annoyance. Repeated insurrections took place, and Aden, during the year 1185, was stormed by Azab Mukki Akrabi, who kept possession of it for two days, when he was driven out. Towards the close of his reign he became unable to attend to public affairs, and his brother Foudthel was employed in keeping the tribes in subjection.

The people, however, were not quieted until the instigator of all disputes, the uncle M'Heussan, was waylaid and murdered by the creeses (or daggers) of the sultan's slaves, in 1190.

In the year following the sultan died of smallpox, with nearly one-fourth of the inhabitants of Lahidge and surrounding villages; and it is worthy of remark, that though Aden was crowded with fugitives from the interior, the disease did not intrude within its limits.

In three instances since Aden has become a British settlement smallpox has appeared, but never spread; until the year 1845 afforded the melancholy

* Sultan Selim annexed Egypt to his dominions in 1517, and Suleyman the Magnificent succeeded him in 1520. There can be no doubt that when Selim endeavoured to annex Arabia to his dominions, a fresh stimulus was given to the trade of Yemen; and during his administration and that of his sons, every attention was bestowed upon Aden, as the principal station from which all their Indian conquests and expeditions against their formidable rivals, the Portuguese, were to emanate. Its importance is mentioned by that quaint old historian Ibn Batuta, and its eventual decay was doubtless caused by the Turkish evacuation of the country. In 1839 a few aqueducts, tanks, and ruined towers were all that was left to mark its former splendour. Man alone had not changed, and the Bedouin who daily enters the bazaar of Aden, is in all respects the same as his forefathers were a thousand years ago.

† Unfortunate in regard to pecuniary defalcations, caused by native treachery.

‡ Yemen (in which Aden, the eye thereof, is situated) is thus described by the Arab historian Ab-el-Rahman ibn Ali Dthabi:—"Yemen the blessed, is a large and populous country, endowed with every blessing by the Al-

mighty." Sanâ is now, as formerly, the principal town in Yemen; it is termed by the Arabs the "Paradise of the earth," where the ark of Noah rested after the deluge, and where Han built a temple and constructed a well, which were destroyed by Mohammed, or one of his successors. A. Hegira 921, in the month Suffer, sixteen Frank (Portuguese) vessels reached Aden, disembarked troops, but were driven out again by the Arabs. This Mohammedan account agrees with the statement of Albuquerque, who, A.D. 1513, invaded Aden, and was defeated with great loss, when he sailed away for Camaran Island, and was probably the first European who navigated the Red Sea. A. Hegira 923, Sultan Selim I., having overthrown the Mameluke power, determined on the conquest of Yemen, collected a strong force at Suez, under Suleyman Pasha, who made himself master of Aden. A. Hegira 1019, eighteen Portuguese vessels again unsuccessfully attempted to take Aden. The Turks and Arabs frequently contested the possession of Sanâ and Aden; but between the years A. Hegira 1043 and 1141, the governing family of Lahidge threw off all yoke, declared Lahidge and Aden free, and until August, 1844, no demand for tribute was ever made.

proof that the town was not invulnerable to the assaults of infectious disease, the smallpox having (probably owing to the crowded state of the population) spread to a considerable extent amongst the Jews and Mussulmans.

A.H. 1191, Abdul Hadi was succeeded by his brother, Sultan Foudthel ibn Abdel Kerim, who, after a peaceful and prosperous reign of sixteen years, died without issue (thus verifying the prediction of the Sayud of Hydroos); and in the year 1207 A.H., or 1791 A.D., was succeeded by his brother Ahmed ben Abdel Kerim ibn Foudthel ibn Ali.

This prince I saw at Aden in the year 1820: he was then a very handsome man, much beloved by his people, and a great promoter of agricultural pursuits. The long-continued years of anarchy and confusion that preceded his reign had, however, made the people habitual marauders; and it was in vain for Sultan Ahmed to attempt to suppress it. It was with this prince that Sir Home Popham entered into a treaty in the year 1800 A.D.

After a reign of thirty-six years, this sultan died; and though he was anxious to benefit his country, and behaved with extreme liberality to all foreigners, he left not one single monument to perpetuate his name. During the latter part of his life he became avaricious and miserly, and his successor rejoiced, on ascending the throne, to find the treasury stored with 50,000 German crowns.

A few years before his death, A.H. 1235 (A.D. 1819), the sultan was surprised by a party of 8,000 Burlakis, led on by their sultan Abdulla ibn Fureyd: unable to resist, he agreed to pay down 7,000 German crowns, which terms were accepted; but when the time came for the disbursement of this sum, he pleaded poverty, and the "Burlaki chief," ignorant of the true state of his finances, accepted half in goods, and returned to his own country, since which he has not made another attempt, although threats have been held out of attacking him this year.

The first treaty, so far as I can discover, entered into by the British with the Sultan of Aden, was that of Sir Home Popham, in 1800-1, on the part of the governor-general of India and Sultan Ahmed Abdel Kerim, the uncle of the present chief. This treaty was made, doubtless, for political as well as commercial reasons; indeed, we availed ourselves of Aden as a rendezvous for a division of the troops sent under the command of General Baird, to expel the French from Egypt. Colonel Murray commanded this portion of the force, which remained at Aden some time, whilst the transports watered and refitted; and to this day the Arabs remember and speak of the visit of the English with pleasure. After the return of the troops from Egypt, Aden and its commercial treaty were alike forgotten, except by passing vessels, which occasionally watered there; and the once flourishing city had already sunk into an insignificant village, when, in 1829, some coals were sent to Aden and landed on Seera Island, for the use of the first steamer built in India, the *Hugh Lindsay*. This vessel, on her arrival, was six days and a-half taking in 180 tons of coals, owing to the indolence of the natives, who could not be induced to work except at intervals, notwithstanding Sultan M'Houssan Foudthel had promised Captains Pepper and Moresby, of the Indian navy, to do his utmost to expedite the coaling of the steamers, for which he had received valuable presents, amongst which were two 6-pounder field-pieces, with train complete.

Owing to this serious detention, and to the distance of Aden from Bombay, Maculla was chosen as a coaling port, and Aden once more sank into oblivion.

About A.D. 1831, Turki Bilmass, the then governor of Mocha, sent a brig, with a mission on board, to arrange for the reoccupation of Aden by the Turks. The embassy was received by the sultan with every demonstration of respect, and were sumptuously entertained; but on the first night of their arrival, twenty-seven of their number were treacherously murdered by the orders of the chief, and the brig escaped to Mocha. Had not Mocha been shortly after stormed and taken by Ali ibn Mejjitel, the Assyrian chief, Turki Bilmass would, doubtless, have brought the Sultan of Lahidge to a heavy reckoning for this base and perfidious conduct.

In the course of my survey of the south coast of Arabia, I found the Sultan of Aden the most inveterate plunderer of unfortunate vessels wrecked on the coast, especially in the instance of a ship from Java, that struck on one of the rocky patches to the westward of the place, and ran into Aden for safety; in several bugalows that ran ashore near the town; and, lastly, in the case of the Madras ship *Deriah Dowlut*, whose crew and passengers were treated with the greatest barbarity.

I had reported the conduct of this chief previously to government, in the naval department; but on hearing of their shameful conduct towards the *Deriah Dowlut*, I at once stood over to Aden, and whilst surveying its harbour trigonometrically, personally remonstrated with the sultan, telling him, that as a British officer, on the part of government, I held him responsible for the plundered property which was then selling in the bazaars. This occurrence was duly reported by me, in the naval department, to the Bombay government, who, in December, 1837, were pleased to appoint me as a commissioner for the arrangement of British affairs at Aden, in the following points, viz.—

1st, To obtain satisfaction from Sultan M'Houssan for his unwarrantable plunder of the *Deriah Dowlut*; and, in the event of this being satisfactorily arranged, to obtain Aden by purchase, if possible.

The honourable company's 18-gun sloop *Coote* was at that time at Mocha, and I was authorised to proceed in her to Aden. The *Berenice* steamer conveyed me to Mocha, when I immediately shifted into the *Coote*, and weighing a few days afterwards, reached Aden on the 28th of December. The following day, in answer to a letter from me, I received a notification from the sultan that he would meet me on the 4th of January in Aden, on which day I landed, and had my first interview with him. The sultan strenuously denied all knowledge of, or participation in, the plunder—offering to swear on the Koran, and calling God to witness, that neither he nor his tribe had anything to do with the business. As, however, I knew the very godowns in which plunder was then lodged, and I had seen the sale of part of it in Aden bazaar previously, I paid no attention to his protestations, and on the 6th demanded 12,000 dollars, or the restoration of the whole of the property. This occasioned great excitement in the town; but I persisted in my demand, although every effort was used to induce me to change my decision. A large body of Bedonins were perpetually paraded in front of our party, which consisted of Lieutenant Hamilton (Indian navy), Dr. Arbuckle, and myself, with three marines in a storehouse, and some threats were held out; but I remained firm in my decision,

and the sultan appeared equally determined to remain firm in his. At sunset I decided upon moving the sloop round, under the pretence of her being nearer to receive me, and I therefore wrote to the sultan, saying, that since he was determined to grant no satisfaction, I requested that my note might be sent to the *Coote*, which vessel, on its receipt, would come round to Seera to receive me; and during the interval of perfect silence which prevailed for three hours after the receipt of my note, we prepared to defend ourselves to the best of our power.

They stopped my note, and begged for one hour longer; at ten, P.M., the eldest son of the sultan came over, attempting an apology for his father's false and deceitful conduct—offered to give the required articles, which was done the next morning, the 10th of January; but many having been sold in Aden, I received nominally only 7,808½ German crowns' worth of plunder, and a bill at twelve months' sight for 1,191 German crowns; and thus the affair was peacefully settled, to which effect I gave a certificate to the sultan, dated the 11th of January, 1838.

Having, after considerable labour and (if we may judge from the murder of the Turkish commissioner) some personal risk, accomplished the first part of my instructions, for the execution of which government were pleased to honour me with their approbation, I then commenced the more delicate task of amicably effecting a transfer of Aden to the British government, as a coal depôt and harbour.

To accomplish this, great tact was required, as the sultan possessed all the cunning, avarice, and dishonesty of an Asiatic,—was notorious from childhood for treachery and deceit, and now endeavoured to obtain a sum of money without granting an equivalent. The fear of his tribe prevented his openly granting the place to the British, as he would then have to divide the annual sum he received from the government amongst them. His favourite idea was to receive in secret a regular stipend: to use his own words, he wished for a monthly sum to be paid him like the Nabob of Surat. After many difficulties he gave me the promise of a transfer of Aden on the arrival of troops to take possession; and it was secretly arranged between us, that he was to receive, including everything, 8,700 German crowns per annum. He declined accepting the money at once, as he feared to excite the suspicions of his tribe; but, in writing, he gave me permission to build at once, and to send up troops in March.

This arrangement was concluded on the 23rd of January, 1838, and on the following day Sayud M'Houssan Weiss, Sultan Ahmed (the sultan's eldest son), and Hadji M'Houssan, were directed to meet me, to be personally present, and to witness the sultan's agreement with the British.

On the 27th of January, no horses came for either myself or my party. I therefore sent my interpreter to inquire into the cause, and pulled up in the *Coote's* pinnace to the head of the bay. After passing Ras Hedjaf, we observed the interpreter with spare horses, who called out lustily for me to pull in to where he was, and on doing so I was informed of a most determined piece of villany which was to be attempted to secure my person and papers. The plan had been revealed to my interpreter by a female slave, and corroborated by Rashed ibn Abdullah; but the forethought of my interpreter, Mulla Jaffer, defeated their purposes. This villany is a *fact*, and now acknowledged by many

at Aden; amongst whom are the Sayud of Hydros, Ali ibn Bon Bekr, and Rashed, who, on his death-bed, confessed the whole. Their words to me were—"God truly favoured you throughout, or you would not have ruled over the destinies of Aden since."

The worthy Sir Robert Grant, in his letter on the subject, said, that "this villany was from report, and all would deny it." In this he was perfectly correct; but the truth is *now* known, and Sultan Ahmed, from fear and an evil conscience, has never entered Aden since. It was strange that I had suspicion of treachery, and, on pulling up, had arranged with Lieutenant Hamilton, that in case of any attempt on the part of the Arabs, he was to shoot Sayud M'Houssan Weiss, whilst I was to fire at Sultan Ahmed; after which we were to make our way to the horses, and thus effect our escape. Thanks, however, to the slave-girl of Rashed and Mulla Jaffer, we are now alive and well. After this evil intent on the part of the son, I wrote to Sultan M'Houssan to inform him that I had all papers connected with the transfer safe in my possession, and should proceed to Bombay to report all particulars, when the government could act as they considered he deserved.

In September, 1838, I was again sent to Aden in the honourable company's sloop of war *Coote*, with a detachment of one officer and thirty Europeans as a body-guard, and accompanied by the late Lieutenant Western, of the engineers. We arrived at Aden on the 24th of October, and I wrote to the sultan, requiring him to give up Aden at once, in conformity with the treaty of the January previous. I pitched my tents on Ras Tarsheim, and the following day was visited by Rashed ibn Abdullah, and a Banian named Damjee, who brought me a message, saying that Sultan Ahmed would not give up Aden or the property, unless I returned him the bond for the 1,191 German crowns, and the grant of Aden given to me by his father. He himself believed that government did not require Aden, or they would have taken possession of it in March; and he required me to produce proof that I was authorised to receive Aden in the name of the British. I produced my authority, and then informed Sultan Ahmed that I required his father's authority for his conduct, and that I awaited a reply to my letter.

On the 27th of October, Captain Denton sent to Aden for supplies for the use of the *Coote*, which were refused, and he was not allowed water. I wrote to the governor, telling him that the refusal to sell us provisions was tantamount to a declaration of war, and that, if inclined, I could with ease seize their flocks that were daily sent to graze outside.

On the 30th of October, I received a letter from Sultan M'Houssan Foudthel, of which the following is a copy:—"Your letter has reached me, and I understand the contents: my feet are bad, and I cannot rise from my couch. My agents in the affair are Ahmed, who is now with you in Aden, and others. I now send, and I pray of you to settle this affair as may be most advantageous to us both."

[Seal.]

From Sultan Ahmed I also received the following:—"May God be with you; you must know that your letter to Ali Abdullah has been received, and I understand it. It is my duty, and you had better take care. Sultan M'Houssan is not now above me, nor are his answers (to you.) If you remain quiet, I will be on your head (i.e., I will

protect you.) I am superior to you as well as to my father. If you come to the gate, I will permit you to enter, and then be upon you (*i.e.*, protect you.) This is the language of my Bedouins. Sultan Ahmed is our sultan, and we are his servants. If he order, we will obey, and *be upon you suddenly*.—Signed and sealed by Sultan Ahmed."

With this letter I also received a threat that our throats should be cut, and our tents and ships taken by boats; and as it was evident that friendly remonstrance was of no avail, I determined, for the safety of life and property, to strike my tents, and remove to the ship. On the 20th of November, to my surprise, the *Coote's* pinnace, under Lieutenant Hamilton, was suddenly fired upon by a party of matchlockmen, two men slightly wounded, and the boat shot through in several places. This act was without the slightest provocation or insult on the part of the British. I had certainly prevented their date-boats from entering the port of Aden, in return for their having refused supplies to the *Coote*—a measure which, had it extended to their whole trade, I should have been fully justified in adopting; but I was anxious to gain my point, *viz.*, the quiet cession of Aden to the British, after a promise had been made to that effect. After this insult had been offered, and after British blood had been spilt, I gave the order, in my letter to Com. Penton, dated the 20th of November, 1838, to stop the trade by every means in his power.

Repeated skirmishes followed, as whenever a boat from the *Coote* approached the shore, she was sure to be fired at. A native boat having been seized by the *Coote*, was fitted out at my request, to

secure a bugalow belonging to the sultan, which she captured, and I had her fitted as a mortar boat. On the 14th of December the Arabs begged for a truce of two days, which I willingly granted; but it was to no purpose, as I received a letter from the Somali coast, enclosing a letter of Ahmed M'Houssan's during the interval. This letter contained the offer of a bribe of 200 German crowns to Seyarat (on the opposite coast), to induce the people to refuse us water, and to murder any European who landed. The arrival about this time of the honourable company's schooner *Mahé*, and the barque *Ann Crichton*, laden with coal, first induced the Arabs to believe that we were in earnest. On the 11th of January, a smart and very gallant skirmish took place off Seera, between the battery on the Mole and the schooner *Mahé*, with two gun-boats. Two Englishmen were wounded, and between twenty and thirty Arabs killed and wounded. On the 16th of January the following squadron, from Bombay, reached Aden:—Her Majesty's ship *Vulgate*, 28 guns, Captain Smith; her Majesty's ship *Cruiser*, 16 guns; with 300 European and 400 native soldiers, under Major Baillie.

I immediately sent a peremptory letter to Sultan M'Houssan, who was then in Aden with 700 Bedouins, to deliver the place up. The answer being evasive, and hearing that he had sent for 1,200 Foudthis, I decided at once on bombardment and storm of the town, and wrote the letters marked A and B* to the respective military and naval officers. I supplied Captain Smith with a plan of attack, according to my ideas, and had the honour to take the *Vulgate* to her position. My report C† after the capture of the place,

* (A) "Sir,—All negotiations with the chieftains of the Abdullah tribe having failed in bringing them to perform their written promise of transferring Aden to the British, and their having declared war by opening fire on the honourable company's ship of war *Coote*, and her boats,—in fact, after all reasoning and every strenuous endeavour has been employed by me to bring the deceitful and dishonourable tribe to their senses by mild and conciliatory measures have proved unavailing, I am under the necessity, as the last and only resource left to obtain satisfaction for the repeated insults offered to the British, to solicit that force may be used to compel them to evacuate the ground of Aden to the British, as agreed to under the sultan's seal in January, 1838. I have therefore the honour to request that you will, with the squadron under your command, in co-operation with the troops under the command of Major T. Baillie, adopt such measures for the immediate capture and occupation of Aden as may appear to you both best calculated to obtain it. I take the liberty of pointing out that many of the poor inhabitants of Aden have been compelled by the chieftains to remain there, consisting principally of Jews, Banians, and Zoorees; I therefore earnestly solicit that, if possible, their lives be preserved. I also beg, that if fortune should place the sultan or his sons, any chieftains or sayids, in our possession, that their lives be spared, and that any individual so captured be secured to await future decision regarding them. Having a perfect knowledge of the localities of the place, I shall feel most happy to afford you any information on the subject; and if from a thorough knowledge of the bay and anchorage, my services or advice be advantageous, I shall feel proud to accompany the commander of any vessel of the squadron in taking up a position for the destruction of their strongest battery. I have the honour, &c. (Signed, S. B. HAINES, Political Agent.—Aden, 16th January, 1839.

"To Capt. Smith, H.M.S. *Vulgate*, and sen. officer, Aden."

(B) "Sir,—All negotiations having failed in obtaining

Aden by mild and conciliatory measures, I have the honour to request you will, with the force under your command, in co-operation with Captain Smith and the squadron under his command, adopt such measures for the immediate capture and occupation of Aden as may appear to you both most advisable. There are several Jews and Banians, and a few Zoorees Arabs, who have been compelled, contrary to their inclination, to remain in the town: may I solicit that, if possible, their lives be spared; and should it be our good fortune to obtain possession of the person of the sultan or his sons, any chieftain or sayid, I request they may be treated with respect, and secured to await further decision. I shall be most happy to afford you every information in my power. I have the honour, &c. (Signed, S. B. HAINES, Political Agent.—Aden, January 16th, 1839.

"To Major T. Baillie, commanding the military force."
† (C) "Sir,—I have the honour to inform you, for information of the honourable the governor in council, that the force for the occupation of Aden arrived on the 16th January, when I immediately dispatched the letter marked A into the town, addressed to all the chieftains; the answer was frivolous and unsatisfactory, and with it I received a secret message from Rashid Abdullah, saying they only wanted time to obtain Bedouins, and they were preparing the great guns for service. In consequence of the above information, I considered it advisable to lose no time in capturing it, more particularly as we had but a few days' water for the troops, and therefore wrote the letter marked No. 3 Political, to Major Baillie [marked B, and given in previous note.] In offering an opinion on the plan of attack, I gave to Captain Smith a rough sketch, laying the *Coote* close to the battery, with the troops to storm, in two divisions, when the fortifications were destroyed. This idea was followed in the attack, with the only exception of Captain Smith wishing to place his own ship where I placed the *Coote*, and the latter in Hakat Bay. Captain Smith accepted my services in taking his ship in, and I feel proud to say that he was pleased with

will explain what was done at the time. The loss was—fifteen killed and wounded; amongst the latter, Lieutenant Nisbett, L.N., severely, and I received a mere bruise from a ball that first struck the capstan of the *Volage*. The loss of the Arabs was 150 killed and wounded.

Aden, when captured, was defended by 700 fighting men from the interior. It was a miserable village, of about 600 huts (belonging principally to Jews), situated within the largest crater, with stupendous natural battlements surrounding it. The dilapidated remains of former magnificence were in many places visible. Three brass guns, sixteen to seventeen feet in length, and conveying a ball of from eighty to a hundred pounds, cast in Anno Hegira 901, and mounted on rude carriages, were found, and presented by the captors to her Majesty. Their united weight was nearly sixteen tons.

My first object, after the taking of Aden, was to keep all the tribes quiet until the troops had thrown up temporary defences, in which I succeeded; the field-works and redans, with the ditch, were erected by Lieutenant Western, of the engineers, on the line of the old Arab wall (the Durb el Hurabi.) Fortunately these temporary works were completed before the Arabs had been brought over, by the influence of the sultan, to make one more struggle for the recovery of Aden. On the morning of the 11th of November, 1839, the wall was attacked by a body of about 5,000 men, who were defeated, with a loss of 200 men killed and wounded. Some days after this defeat the sultan wrote to me, saying —“You have thrown dust in our eyes. You have, by kind words and gifts, blinded us, whilst you were throwing up forts to destroy us. O, commander,

the position I gave her. Everything being prepared, with the troops in the boats under cover of the ships, and the reserve on board the honourable company's sloop *Cootie*, the *Volage* stood in and took up a position at 9.30 A.M., within 300 yards off their strongest battery. The *Cruiser* ten minutes after took up her's, as did the schooner *Mahé*, in Hakat Bay. The fire of the three vessels was tremendous and destructive. The battery and town were soon brought down, but still the defenders of Seera lay under cover of the point, ready to fire on the troops as they pushed off. The *Mahé* schooner weighed and took up another position, flanking the Bedouins at fifty yards distance, when the fire on her was very heavy, but her return soon drove them out, and they retreated and fired from every cover they could find, until, from the cross-fire of the *Volage*, *Cruiser*, *Cootie*, and *Mahé*, and bomb-vessel, they were afraid to show themselves. At 11.45, the troops left in two divisions, each party landing nearly at the same interval, and met with but little opposition, the sultan's sons and the greater part of the Bedouins having retreated out of the town on the boats pushing off for the shore. About ten minutes after landing the British flag was hoisted on the sultan's palace, and about 12.30 the boat of the *Mahé* schooner, and one from the *Volage*, took possession of Seera, hoisted the union-jack, and took 139 prisoners, who were marched into the town. I could not but admire the splendid fire from the shipping and mortar vessel, and the behaviour of the little *Mahé* drew forth the admiration of every person; and it is only wonderful how the prisoners lay so close under the rocks, or that any of them escaped. Nothing could have been more regular than the landing; the men were steady to a degree; they behaved with courage and stormed the place gallantly; but what is still more to be admired, and a greater proof of their discipline is, that after landing, neither male or female was molested. The loss on the side of the British, as will be seen by Major Baillie's letter, which I have the honour to forward, was very

pity me; for it is the fault of my tribe! Forgive me, and restore me my pension.”*

On the 15th of March, 1840, and the 10th Mohurrun, 1256 A.H., Sultan M'Houssan Foudthel wrote to the Bombay government, and acknowledged the grant of the bond, asserting at the same time, incorrectly, that I had extorted it from him, when, in reality, he sent it to me in secret from Lahidge. This he also acknowledges under his own hand, as follows:—“A great number of Arabs having assembled, I informed Commander Haines that I would apprise them of the engagement agreed upon between us and that officer, and impress upon them the benefit of the arrangement; but he did not consent to it. He resolved upon hostilities, plundered our houses, killed our subjects, and carried off our property.”

This letter acknowledges the transfer; but the latter part is untrue, as hostilities commenced on the part of the Arabs, who had a body of men in the town to defend the place, and whose only object in soliciting further delay was to give time for their Foudthli friends to enter and strengthen the garrison. Whilst the crafty Sultan M'Houssan was writing to me repeatedly for forgiveness after his first attack, nay, whilst he was writing the letter above quoted, he was engaged in secretly congregating the tribes to renew the attack upon Aden. A second attempt, with a force of four to five thousand men, was made on the 20th of May, 1840, and again defeated, with great loss on the part of the enemy, whilst the British had only six wounded. This second defeat exasperated the sultan beyond measure; and notwithstanding the significant proof he had received that a good look-out was kept, and that my information regarding his movements was invariably true, he

trivial until the unfortunate insurrection of the prisoners from Seera. The killed and wounded, including navy and army, are fifteen; eight of these casualties occurred after the place was in our possession. The loss of the enemy has been very severe; 139 are now said to be missing, besides many wounded inland; and we have twenty-five men, two severely wounded, to return inland. Among them is one chieftain, Sheik Ruggah Hazzabee, and Ali Salaan, a nephew of the sultan. I have supplied the unfortunate sufferers with food and everything to make them as comfortable as circumstances will admit of, and they receive kind medical attention from Dr. Malcolmson, of the 24th regiment. I have also given a few dollars for the support of their families. My best thanks are due to Captain Smith, the senior naval officer, for most willingly attending to every suggestion, and particularly in preventing his men from plundering and insulting the people. My best thanks are also due to Major Baillie for his kind attention to my request both at the period of storm and afterwards. The inhabitants were driven for safety to the Musjud el Hydroos, where a strong guard was placed by Major Baillie for their security. On the day after the storm, the inhabitants, afraid to return to their houses, would not do so until I reasoned with them and informed them I was about taking up my quarters in the town. It would appear like presumption in me to point out peculiar instances of merit; I therefore leave it to the senior naval and military officers to do so; and merely state that it is my firm conviction that British soldiers and sailors could not have behaved better. I have the honour, &c. (Signed, S. B. HAINES).—Aden, 25th January, 1839.

“To J. P. Willoughby, Esq., Secretary to Government.”

* The pension had been given by the British government, on the occupation of Aden, according to the original terms, viz., 8,700 dollars per annum; and this of course was stopped when Aden was attacked by order of Sultan M'Houssan.

determined upon a third attack, which was duly notified to me by my confidential agents inland. About fourteen days previous to the time fixed upon, I stopped all communication with the interior, the interim being employed in stationing a block-boat to protect the left flank, and constructing some small towers for extra guards. My closing the roads was a measure that the sultan had never thought of. He had considered that we could not subsist without supplies from the interior, and my now cutting off all communication, filled him with dismay. On the 5th of July, 1840, at forty-five minutes past two, A.M., the third attack took place, the Arab force mustering fully 5,000 men, under their principal chiefs, with the sultan of the Foudthili tribe, and Sultan M'Houssan's eldest son Ahmed leading them. They advanced with their usual impetuosity, when a sudden and unexpected fire from the block-boat, within a distance of twenty yards, and the gun-boat within a hundred yards, staggered them, whilst the fire from the wall completed their discomfiture, and they retreated with a loss of one of their principal chiefs, and nearly 300 men, without the slightest injury having been sustained by the British.

This defeat had such an effect upon the interior chieftains, that many of them swore never again to risk their lives in attacking Aden. I, of course, was

abused: my conduct was considered treacherous, as "I had prevented their entering Aden, whilst I was preparing traps for their destruction; and immediately after they were driven back, I opened the gates for trade as usual;" in addition to which, I had blockaded the Foudthili sultan's bunker, cut off his annual supplies, and knocked down his castle,—a mode of retaliation so effective, that I persevered in it until he sued for peace.

After the third defeat, repeated applications for peace were made by the sultan, always, however, with the proviso that the pension was to be restored. This, however, was declined until they had by their peaceful behaviour given proof of their good intentions; whilst I adhered to the original determination that two sons of the sultan should be sent in as hostages. On the 10th September, 1841, a body of perhaps 400 men, just as it was dark, crept close to the wall and fired at the sentries, fortunately without effect. The return fire killed and wounded eleven men and three camels.

From the 10th September, 1841, Aden has enjoyed comparative quiet; and in the beginning of February, 1843, Sultan M'Houssan entered Aden and sued for peace, which was granted, though the question of the pension was reserved for the future decision of the government. The annexed treaty,* marked (D), was then agreed on between Sultan

* "This treaty is made by Sultan M'Houssan Foudthel, his heirs and successors, the tribes of the Azeebi and Selamee, on their visit to Aden on Saturday, the 27th day of Shai el Hadz el Haram, 1258.—Being anxious to make peace with the British government, Captain Stafford Bettlesworth Haines, in the name of the British government, has given his consent, and has made peace with Sultan M'Houssan Foudthel and his adherents; and on this treaty has Sultan M'Houssan Foudthel placed his seal, and Captain Stafford Bettlesworth Haines, on the part of the British government, has set his seal. Inasmuch as peace is good and desirable for both parties, the Sultan M'Houssan Foudthel of Lahidge, in the name of himself, his heirs, successors, and the tribes of Selamee and Azeebi, and Captain Stafford Bettlesworth Haines, on the part of her most gracious Majesty Queen Victoria I., of Great Britain and Ireland, have made this holy agreement, that between the two governments shall exist a firm and lasting friendship that shall never be broken from the beginning unto the end of all things; and to this agreement God is witness. *Article 1st.* In consideration of the respect due to the British government, Sultan M'Houssan Foudthel agrees to restore the lands and property of all kinds belonging to the late Hassam Abdulla Khateel, agent to the British at Lahidge, after such property shall be proven. But the Sultan M'Houssan expects in return, that certain revenue and territorial books styled Deiras, said to be in the possession of the Khateel family, should be restored to the government of Lahidge, and then their persons shall be safe should they wish to go inland. *Article 2nd.* The sultan will, on the same consideration, and has, in the presence of witnesses, settled all claims made by Shumail the Jew. And he will also attend to all claims that may be brought against him during his fifteen days' residence in Aden. *Article 3rd.* Such transit duties as shall be hereafter specified shall be exacted by the sultan, who binds himself not to exceed them. The sultan will also, by every means in his power, facilitate the intercourse of merchants; and he shall, in return, be empowered to levy a moderate export duty. *Article 4th.* The sultan engages to permit British subjects to visit Lahidge for commercial purposes, and to protect them, allowing toleration of religion, with the exception of burning the dead. *Article 5th.* Should any British subject become amenable to the law, he is to be made over to the authorities at

Aden, and in like manner are the subjects of the sultan to be made over to his jurisdiction. *Article 6th.* The bridge of Khor Maksa is English property, and as such, shall be kept in order by them; but should it be proved that it is destroyed by the followers of the sultan, he shall repair it. *Article 7th.* The sultan binds himself, as far as he can, to keep the roads clear of plundering parties, and to protect all merchandise passing through his territories. *Article 8th.* British subjects may, with the permission of the sultan, hold in tenure land at Lahidge, subject to the laws of the country; and, in like manner, may the ryots of the sultan hold property in Aden, subject to the British laws. *Article 9th.* Such articles as the sultan may require for his own family shall pass Aden free of duty; and, in like manner, all presents and all government property shall pass the territories of the sultan free from transit duty. *Article 10th.* With regard to the stipend of the sultan, it entirely rests with Captain Haines and the British government. The sultan considers the British as his true friends; likewise the British look upon the Sultan of Lahidge as their friend.—This treaty is concluded on the 11th day of Shai Mohurrun el Haram Ashoor, in the year of the Hegira 1258 (11th February, 1843).—Signed and sealed by SULTAN M'HOUSSAN FOUTHTEL, STAFFORD BETTLESWORTH HAINES (Captain, Indian Navy), Political Agent, Aden." A further bond was obtained by Captain Haines from Sultan M'Houssan prior to granting him his monthly salary, after his repeated attacks on Aden.—"The right honourable governor-general of India having been graciously pleased to grant to me a monthly salary of 541 Geraan crowns, so long as I continue to act honestly and amicably towards the British, in every respect adhering to the terms of my late bond dated February 11th, 1843, especially sworn and delivered to Stafford Bettlesworth Haines, Esq., captain in the Indian navy, and political agent at Aden, I hereby solemnly attest the religious sincerity thereof; and moreover declare that in all things relating to the peace, progress, and prosperity of Aden, I will use every effort to arrest calamity, and lend my utmost aid to support the interest of the British flag; and I will conform, in all intention and purpose, to the articles specified in my late bond dated February 11th, 1843. I further bind myself by oath, that should any breach of faith or trespass on the aforesaid bond, either as concerning myself, children, chiefs, or

M'Houssan and myself, dated 11th February, 1843; but it was not until February, 1844, that the monthly stipend of 541 German crowns (equal to his former pension) was granted; and through the kindness and generous liberality of the government, he received at the same time one year's back pay, he having entered Aden to sue for peace in February, 1843. Prior to paying this treacherous old chief his pension, I considered it advisable to further ensure his fidelity by an additional bond to the treaty of the 11th February, 1843 (11th Shai Mohurrun el Haram Ashoor, 1258.) This second bond is stringent in the extreme, and dated 20th February, 1844. [See Note below.]

The principal tribes in the neighbourhood of Aden are as follows:—The Abdali tribe, amounting to about 4,000 fighting men; Foudthi, 3,100; Houshebi, 6,000; Shezebi, 4,000; Yaffai, 49,000; Ourlaki, 12,000; Joud, or Ratfan, 8,000; Ameer, 4,000; Alloo, 500; Subeli, 10,000; Dathun, 4,000; Oudelli, 2,500; Resass, 6,000 fighting men. Of these, the Abdali tribe is subdivided into thirty clans, viz., the Azeebi, 400 men (Sheikh Azabe); Muntsir, 100 (Hussein Muntsir), Sowaythi, 70 (Isslim Soin); residence, Feeoosh; Dunnum, 30 (Abi Ba Saleh); Feeoosh; Badtha Batan, 90 (Mohammed Selhah); Feeoosh; Harraina, 20 (Aouth Syud); Harraina; Musheheira, 80 (Aouth Saleh); Durrb; Ambutein, 30 (Nassebin Abdullah); Durrb; Al Mehella, 200 (Saleh Mohammed Abdullah); Mehella; El Asaifa, 40 (Foudthel Ali); El Wahul; Ahl Seyla, 120 (Foudthel Hydera); Seyla; Beit Eyath, 200 (Homeidi); Eyath; Al Sumsam, 10 (Nassur Foudthel Sumsam); Sumsam; Bin Seloon, 120 (Hydera bin Salem); Ober e Seloon; Bin Dthuroob, 30 (Murmish Dthurbee); Ober e Seloon; Saadryn, 200 (Mohammed Syud Miswad); Saadryn; Shudtheif, no fighting men (Ali bin Ismail); Shudtheif; Haskie, 100 (Sheikh Mukbil Hadi el Azidi); Haskie; El Hejjil, 100 (Saleh Selhah); El Hejjil; El Kidam, 200 (Foudthel e Noim); El Kidam; El Hassaini, 30 (Mohammed Kumesh); El Hassaini; El Selam, 70 (Selhah bin Ahmed); Mujhaffa; El Deyyan, 70 (Mansur bin Ali); Harran; Thaleb, 150 (Ali bin Abdullah Kaisi); Thaleb; El Hammera, 400 (Salem

Selhah el Ban); Hammera; Ober Bedr, 120 (Awuth bin Abdulla); Ober Bedr; Tharoor, 20 (Nassur Mufaili); Tharoor; El Meidan, 500 (Sheikh Mehdi); Meidan; El Thol Yemani, 200 (Yaffer Yemani); residence Thol; Houth Sufian Syud Mohammed Weiss, and about 10 men at Sufian; Thoseim, 20 (Nassur Foudthel); residence, Feeoosh. Making an aggregate of rather more than 4,000 fighting men.*

PHYSICAL ASPECT.—Aden consists of a mountainous peninsula, whose greatest altitude is 2,000 feet; it is connected with the mainland by a narrow, sandy isthmus, 120 yards wide, which helps to form a harbour sheltered from all winds. The prospect is very desolate: the heights present the appearance of black lava; only in a few ravines, where some stunted shrubs grow, is there any sign of vegetation. The town, which consists of mean and dingy habitations, is situated in the crater of an extinct volcano, which has a diameter of more than a mile; the cone walls have an altitude of 600 feet, and a circumference along the Sham-Shan ridge (which has an altitude of 1,776 feet) of about four miles. The building ground occupies an area of 380 acres.

The pass by which the crater is entered is strongly fortified, as are also other commanding positions; and a wall across the isthmus forms an outwork against the Arabs, and marks the limit of the British territory. From Steamer Point, where passengers land at an English hotel, there is an excellent road of about three miles,† along the margin of the bay,‡ to the camp and town of Aden, and skirted the entire distance by a lofty volcanic wall, of gloomy

any other person or persons of any tribe, or those in my pay, or any individual whomsoever in any way or by any means connected with my government or my jurisdiction, or should one or any of the aforesaid persons be in any manner convicted of having been privy to, or accessory to such breach of faith or trespass on the treaty, or of committing any act of plunder whatever on the roads leading into Aden from the interior, to take the whole responsibility on myself, and to be answerable to the British; and if I, or others above-mentioned, either openly, or by secret machinations, protect any offender, and do not render entire satisfaction to the British, I freely and solemnly swear to relinquish all claim to the salary granted by the right honourable the governor-general of India, and declare myself perjured before all men. I further swear, that if I do not strictly abide henceforth by the bond dated 11th February, 1843, and the above-mentioned conditions, all claims I may have on the kindness, friendship, and generosity of the British government is rendered null; and consequently, for any breach of truth or aggression on my part for the future, I render myself open to the severest retribution. Dated February 20th. 1844.—Signed and sealed by SULTAN M'HOUSSAN FOUDTHEL of Lahidge.*

* The Yaffai is the most powerful tribe in Yemen. They extend from the Foudthi country to the borders of Soos; DIV. XII.

they are under seven chiefs, who each have 7,000 fighting men under them. Of their country nothing is yet known. Its products are coffee, foah, wuruss, and grain. They are celebrated for their horses, and are esteemed a brave race of men. The Houshebi country is very fertile, and produces grain, coffee, foah, wuruss, aloes, honey, ghee, and senna. Aden is supplied with flour and grain chiefly by this tribe. From the Foudthi country hardly anything is produced beyond Kirbee and Jowari. The Shezebee country is equally as fertile as the Houshebi mountains. Grapes of a very superior quality are brought from Taz, and the "Kaat" plants are a great luxury in Yemen, the leaves of which, when chewed, produce slight intoxication similar to the effects of opium. The remaining tribes all occupy fertile hill ranges, affording ample supplies, and enabling them annually to export large quantities of grain. The only barren soil, in fact, in Yemen, is the belt of sandy country that intervenes between the hills and the sea; and even in this the people supply themselves with Jowari grain sufficient for their own consumption. There is but one mountain stream in the neighbourhood of Aden, which is at El Ghyile, in the Houshebi country. It occasionally reaches Lahidge, where it is collected in a large shallow reservoir, the surplus water being lost in the sands.

† Cost about 26,000 rupees.

‡ The tides rise 6 ft. neap, and 8 ft. spring.

aspect. The territory within British jurisdiction comprises a circuit two miles and a-half inland by two and a-half along-shore; all the harbour, and neighbouring bays and coast, within soundings; and all the islands within those limits.

GEOLOGY.—undoubtedly of igneous origin; in fact, a huge mass of volcanic slag and charred rocks, with the town erected in the centre of its huge crater. It has the appearance of having been once an island, but in that case it must have been at a very remote period; for the peninsula of Aden is the same as it has been for ages, and many severe battles are stated to have been fought on the low isthmus that unites the mountain of Adeu with the mainland. Large masses of conglomerate, composed of lime, shells, and pebbles, abound: coarse black granite, porphyry, and quartz in crystals, are also found. The greater part of the rocks of the peninsula are more or less vesicular, and present an amygdaloid structure: calcedony frequently occurs. The volcanic ashes at Steamer Point are 500 feet above the sea, mixed with decayed shell (*murex inflatus*, common on the coast): glassy slag, or obsidian, though not plentiful, is sometimes seen in veins or streams down the sides of volcanic peaks, like lava, flowing in cascades, and assuming fantastic shapes. At some very distant period, the greater part of this coast must have experienced the effects of powerful volcanic agency; for traces of fire are everywhere visible.

CLIMATE may be divided into two seasons. From the 15th of April to the 15th of October, the weather is exceedingly warm, and the whole peninsula, with the exception of the western and southern points, visited at intervals with strong hot gusts of wind and dust from S.S.W. to W.S.W. (raising the mercury, in Fahrenheit's scale, to 104°), which sometimes last for several hours, and then suddenly subside into a calm, during which the heat is very trying to the garrison and inhabitants. But it should be observed, that during these strong winds, which, taking the average for six years, are said to blow with violence for thirty-eight days, the weather at the west point is pleasant, the mercury ranging only between 76° and 88°.

Notwithstanding the great heat above stated, there is no increase of sickness;

on the contrary, it has been remarked that there is less sickness than during the remaining months of the year, when rheumatism and severe colds are experienced, in addition to other diseases.

From the 15th of October to the 15th of April following, is called the cold season, during which the winds are cool and pleasant, blowing strong or mild, according to the moon's age, from E.N.E. to S.E., with now and then an interval of land and sea breezes. Rain sometimes falls in December, January, February, and April; the mercury, in Fahrenheit's scale, ranging between 68° to 82°. During this period the climate is agreeable, and Capt. Haines considered equal in salubrity to any part of India.

In the cold season, catarrh, dysentery, fever, and rheumatism (with the Yemen ulcer among natives only), are the prevailing diseases. In the warm months, fever, hepatitis, and debility are general.

Copy of Meteorological Table kept in the Hospital of Her Majesty's 17th Regiment for one Year, 1843-'4.

Months.	Maximum.	Medium.	Minimum.
April	95½	84	73
May	102½	88½	75
June	99	91	83
July	98	90½	82½
August	100	90	80
September	99½	88	80
October	95	83	69½
November	89	82	72
December	88	79	70
January	88½	81½	72½
February	89½	80½	73½
March	88½	81	74½

Register of Rain Gauge during the Year 1845, of the Station and Staff Hospital, Aden.

Months.	6 A.M.		6 P.M.		Total.		Number of rainy days.
	In.	Cts.	In.	Cents.	In.	Cents.	
January . .	—	30	—	35	—	65	2
March . . .	—	6	1	10	1	10	1
May	—	6	—	44	—	50	2
June	2	9	—	13½	3	22½	17
July	1	31	1	46½	2	77½	17
August . . .	—	69	1	½	1	69½	23
September, (1st to 11th)	3	67	1	16½	4	83½	7
Total . .	6	212	5	166	11	378	69

On the whole, the climate has proved healthy to our troops. In Sept., 1845, a regiment of Madras native infantry, 950 strong, had only thirty-four in hospital. 11 M. 17th foot were also free from disease: †

550 men.—November 30th, 1841.—A considerable improvement in the health of the men that came in the *Auckland*: they landed at Aden fifty-five sick. Detachment per *Zensobia* look very sickly; twenty-

* Received from Dr. Menzies, her Majesty's 94th regiment, through Lieutenant-colonel Milner.

† Statement showing the reports of the state of health of her Majesty's 17th foot at Aden—strength

but hepatitis is said to be the result of long-continued residence; and a softening of the brain, and even lunacy, is not unusual among the European soldiery.* The Arabs are of the usual athletic, sinewy make.

The population in September, 1845 (independent of the garrison and official persons), consisted of—Europeans, 3: Portuguese, males, 136; females, 20: Arabs, males, 8,960; females, 3,210: Soomalies, males, 1,430; females, 620: Jews (of fair complexion), males, 590; females, 480: Banians, (a trading class of Hindoos), 196: Parsees, 38: East Indian shopkeepers, 100: Boras (Indian traders), 100: Afghans, 180: African Seedees, 180: Egyptians, males, 146; females, 80. Total males, 12,160; females, 4,410 = 16,270. There are no

five of them in hospital the day they landed; one died at sea, one in the harbour, one on shore, and several very bad cases in hospital: total sick, the day after landing, 138. January 4th, 1842.—Reported to the commander-in-chief that sickness has much decreased during the month, and that only sixty-one remain. January 30th.—The men of the 17th may now be considered healthy—only forty-five remain. February 28th.—Twenty-seven men remain in hospital. March 30th.—Reports that the 17th regiment continue in good health. April 30th.—Good health prevails in the regiment. May 31st.—Ditto, ditto. June 29th.—Reports the 17th healthy. July 29th.—Reports, for the information of the commander-in-chief, the decrease of the sick during this month, and the death of one brevet-major and four soldiers. August 29th.—Reports the 17th regiment in good health; only twenty-seven men in hospital, among which several from venereal disease. September 30th.—The 17th regiment very healthy this month. October 31st.—Ditto, ditto. November 30th.—Seven men in hospital, and general health of the remainder extremely good. December 30th.—The 17th regiment continues in good health; fourteen trifling cases in hospital this morning. January 30th, 1843.—Ten men of the 17th regiment in hospital, and the remainder are in good health. March 2nd.—The 17th regiment healthy, notwithstanding the sick in hospital have increased to twenty-five, but the cases, however, in general, slight. March 31st.—Reports the decrease of the sick in hospital; only nineteen men of the 17th regiment, two casualties, one died of dysentery, and one man accidentally drowned; seventeen sick remaining in hospital on April 1st, eight of which venereal. May 1st.—Reports, for the information of the commander-in-chief, that fifteen sick remain in hospital: no casualty during April. May 20th.—Reports one man of the 17th regiment shot himself in the barracks. May 29th.—Reports the 17th regiment extremely healthy. June 29th.—Reports the sick in hospital increased during the month, and one private died of fever; nineteen cases in hospital, but the regiment very healthy. July 28th.—Reports the 17th regiment in good health; one casualty occurred, a case of fever. August 29th.—Reports the 17th regiment healthy;

recent returns of the number of inhabitants.

The Arabs bring abundant supplies to the camp. I noticed, in one day, that 505 camels and 23 donkeys entered Aden: the average for the year is 350 camels daily. Prices in Sept., 1845:—Sheep, 81 = 4s.; bullocks, 5s.; milch cows, 87; kids, four for a rupee = 2s.; fowls, 8s. a dozen, and very good; eggs, sixty-four for a rupee = 2s. Fruits brought from the interior—grapes, apples, pears, musk and water-melons, quinces, apricots, lemons, plantains, cocoa-nuts; also various esculent vegetables. The best coffee is produced within three days' journey of Aden. Excellent wheat is grown in districts adjacent, viz., Katabah and Yafefane: bread, 2d. per lb.; flour, 5s. a barrel of 84 lbs. Foreign supplies are free of duties.

no casualty during the month; only twenty-one were in hospital on the 28th, nine of which venereal. October 1st.—The 17th regiment healthy; no casualty during the month of September. October 30th.—Sixteen men in hospital; two casualties during the month, one fever case, and one worn-out soldier invalided. November 29th.—Reports the 17th regiment in very good health. January 1st, 1844.—The 17th regiment very healthy. January 29th.—Five casualties during the month of December last; the remainder extremely healthy; sixteen men in hospital. March 1st.—The 17th regiment continues in good health; no casualty during the last month—February. March 30th.—Reports nineteen men of the 17th regiment in hospital, and that one-half of the men are slightly affected with scurvy. April 29th.—The 17th regiment very healthy; the number of sick, during the month, is twenty; nine of which venereal. May 20th.—Very healthy, only thirteen men in hospital. June 27th.—Considerable increase in the sick list of the 17th regiment; thirty-two men in hospital, but for a very trifling nature, principally venereal. July 29th.—Thirty men in hospital this day. August 29th.—The 17th regiment continues very healthy; no casualty. September 30th.—The 17th regiment continues healthy; one casualty during the month (the hospital sergeant.) November 1st.—Thirteen men in hospital, the remainder healthy. December 30th.—The sick in hospital greatly reduced. January 31st, 1845.—The 17th regiment continues very healthy; four cases in hospital; one casualty during the month. February 28th.—Ten cases in hospital; the remainder continue very healthy. Her Majesty's 17th regiment left Aden in March, 1845, with only two men sick, after forty-one months' service. The 17th were in Aden three years and five months, and lost sixteen men by sickness, one drowned, and one shot himself: total, eighteen deaths, among 550 men, in forty-one months.

* *Return showing the proportion of sick and deaths in the right wing of her Majesty's 94th regiment of foot, at Aden, for seven months.*—Average strength of the wing for the period, 524; total number of sick treated, 694; total number of deaths, 16; proportion of deaths to number of sick treated, 1 in 43 six-sixteenths; proportion of average sick to average strength, 99 one-seventh—about five per cent.

Statement of the Arrivals at, and Departures from, the Port of Aden, of square-rigged Vessels, with their Amount of Tonnage, from 1st May, 1851, to 30th April, 1852.

Arrivals under Colours.	Totals.		Great Britain.		Bengal.		Bombay and Subj. Ports.		Ports in the Red Sea.		Africa, exclusive of Ports in Red Sea.		Malabar.		Persian Gulf.		Amsterdam.		Ceylon.		Mauritius.		Bourbon.		Akyah.		Java.		Moulmain.		Cruising and from Sea.	
	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.
British . . .	83	37,136	45	23,187	1	788	9	2,512	13	5326	1	578	10	3963	—	—	—	—	—	3	363	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	379	
American . .	10	1,712	—	—	—	—	—	—	4	1024	6	1,468	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	231	—	—	—	—	—	1	316
French . . .	5	1,341	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	3	764	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Spanish . . .	1	161	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	164	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Dutch . . .	6	3,761	5	3,021	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	740	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Russian . . .	2	919	2	919	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Swedish . .	1	300	1	300	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Norwegian .	3	1,299	3	1,299	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	200	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Hamburg . .	2	400	—	—	—	—	1	200	2	776	—	—	9	2853	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Arab . . .	11	3,623	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Grand Total	121	51,338	56	28,636	1	788	10	2,912	19	7120	12	3,174	19	6816	—	—	1	740	—	—	3	363	1	231	—	—	—	—	—	—	2	725
Departures :																																
British . . .	81	36,012	—	—	7	3986	25	11,488	26	9136	—	—	4	1315	1	181	—	—	5	2188	1	332	—	—	3	1418	—	—	5	1824	3	1144
American . .	9	2,392	—	—	—	—	1	187	3	774	2	504	—	—	3	837	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	74	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
French . . .	5	1,341	—	—	—	—	—	—	2	380	2	690	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	161	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Spanish . . .	1	161	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Dutch . . .	6	3,761	—	—	1	737	1	488	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	616	3	1920	—	—	1	584
Russian . . .	2	919	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Swedish . .	1	300	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Norwegian .	3	1,299	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Hamburg . .	2	400	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Arab . . .	11	3,623	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Grand Total	120	49,631	—	—	8	4,723	28	15,163	40	10490	6	1,394	5	1685	4	1018	—	—	5	2188	2	496	1	74	6	2669	4	2320	8	3214	3	1144

Statement of the Arrivals at, and Departures from, the Port of Aden of Country Craft, with their Amount of Tonnage, from 1st May, 1851, to 30th April, 1852.

Totals.	Bombay and Subj. Ports.		Cutch, Veravel, and Poorbunder.		Ports in the Red Sea.		Africa, exclusive of Ports in the Red Sea.		Arabia, exclusive of Ports in the Red Sea.		Persian Gulf.		Malabar.		Returned from Sea.	
	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.
Arrivals . . .	794	26,045	38	4,732	28	2,396	179	6,538	403	5,727	76	1,579	47	3,798	5	693
Departures . .	751	24,624	27	3,203	6	421	162	8,378	390	6,828	20	1,347	—	—	—	—

Note.—The vessels under the British flag consist principally of those belonging to the Honourable East India Company, and to the Peninsular and Oriental Steam-ship Company, which convey the bi-monthly mails between England and India. The position of Aden is advantageous for a coasting and roving station; and in the event of war, it is a commanding position, enabling us to maintain a dominant attitude in the Red Sea.

Water is plentiful within the crater: all the wells in the lower grounds nearest the sea yield a brackish fluid; those under the adjacent mountain range afford pure supplies.

There is no taxation, no transit or custom dues, no ground-rent: in fact, the place is in every respect a free port.

Great credit is due to Captain Haines, for the simple and effective government which he organised at a small expense. In civil cases a *punchayet*, or jury chosen according to caste, decides between the litigants. Drunkenness is punished by fine or the stocks; the latter proving very effective in preventing a repetition of the offence. The cost of the police was only £300

a-year. The total charge for Aden, irrespective of the garrison, is defrayed from the local revenues, including a pension of 1,158 rupees a-month to the sultan—which may be viewed as a ground-rent.

The government sea-custom receipts amounted, in 1843-'44, to 18,798 rupees; in 1844-'45, to 21,377.

COMMERCE.—Imports, 1843-'44—value, 1,237,802; exports, 348,758—rupees: 1844-'45—imports, 1,263,046; exports, 192,121—rupees: shipping inwards, 1844-'45—number, 58; tonnage, 24,170.*

Number and tonnage of small craft for one year—1st May, 1844, to 30th April, 1845: number, 383; tonnage, 7,808.

Comparative Statement showing the Extent and Value of the Trade of the Port of Aden in 1851-'52.

IMPORTS.		Value.	EXPORTS.		Value.
		Rupees.			Rupees.
United Kingdom		438,283	United Kingdom		6,900
Bengal		76,604	Bengal		93,000
Madras		2,416	Bombay and subordinate ports		29,000
Bombay and subordinate ports		620,776	Cutch, Veravel, and Poorbunder		270
Cutch, Veravel, and Poorbunder		203,000	Malabar		237
Malabar		29,468	Singapore		260,657
Singapore		41,916	Ports in the Red Sea		242,523
Ports in the Red Sea		176,900	Africa, exclusive of ditto		151,183
Africa, exclusive of ditto		347,000	Arabia, ditto ditto		29,900
Arabia, ditto ditto		94,651	Persian Gulf		18,120
Persian Gulf		71,612	United States of America		190,000
United States of America		106,168	France		423
France		5,682	Mauritius		—
Holland		3,224	Seychelles		15,000
Mauritius		3,462	Hamburg		—
Seychelles		—	Total		10,36,713
Hamburg		6,235	Treasure		688,700
Spain		16,398	Grand Total		17,25,473
Total		22,46,805			
Treasure		10,59,860			
Grand Total		33,06,755			

ABSTRACT.

	Rupees.
Imports	33,06,755
Exports	17,25,473
Total	50,32,228

The importance of Aden, with its spacious bay eight miles long by four miles broad, is unquestionable. The honourable Caleb Cushing, formerly ambassador for the United States of America and China, and now one of the cabinet at Washington, visited the station in November, 1843, and has expressed in forcible language his sense "of the extraordinary natural features of this new stronghold of the Island Queen which commands the Red Sea and the Sea of Arabia, as Gibraltar does the Mediterranean and a portion of the Atlantic." "Aden is," he adds, "even more than Gibraltar, a castle of nature's own construction. At Gibraltar, England has excavated for herself a citadel in the heart of a limestone mountain; at Aden, she has planted herself in an ancient crater, and sits secure within the primeval fortress formed by the lofty sides of an extinct volcano."

* Under British flag—number, 52; tons, 22,831.

In a commercial point of view the position deserves an attention it has not yet received. The natural resources of the great Arabian peninsula, and of Abyssinia, with the adjacent African regions, are yet unexplored. It will be seen from the annexed tables of imports and exports that there is already a fair prospect of extensive traffic; and as there are many million intelligent and active inhabitants in the surrounding countries, all eager for trade, having numerous wants, and possessed of divers articles required in Europe, it is to be hoped that English skill, enterprise, and capital will be directed to the singular emporium which unites the geographical limits of Asia and of Africa. For one Arabian article alone there is an almost unlimited demand, viz., gum arabic, of which about 60,000 cwt., valued at £150,000, are annually imported into England. According to Dr. Vaughan of Aden, the gum is yielded by a small shrub of a dry and withered appearance (sometimes, however, rising twenty to thirty feet

Classified Statement of the Value and Quantity of the chief Items of the Import

Classification of Goods.	Imports.		Exports.		Totals.	
	Quantity.	Rupees.	Quantity.	Rupees.	Quantity.	Rupees.
Ale and Beer	129 h, 3,015 doz.	19,627	—	—	129 h, 3,015 doz.	19,627
Alkali (Sajekhar).	—	—	5,173 cwt.	4,278	5,173 cwt.	4,278
Aloes	12 cwt.	153	108 cwt.	1,196	120 cwt.	1,349
Apparel and Hosiery	126 pa.	8,195	5 pa.	540	131 pa.	8,735
Badloo Gold and Silver	1,580 tolas	2,309	1,736 idas	2,559	3,316 tolas	4,859
Bangles	24 pa.	612	8 pa.	128	32 pa.	740
Beads	83 pa., 58 cwt.	5,541	71 pa., 48 cwt.	4,685	154 pa., 106 cwt.	10,226
Benjamin	150 cwt.	4,495	63 cwt.	1,911	213 cwt.	6,106
Betel-nut	297 cwt., 3,000	3,089	57 cwt., 22,000	419	354 cwt., 25,000	3,508
Betel-leaves (pan)	117 pa.	673	—	—	117 pa.	673
Bhoosing	200 cwt.	406	—	—	200 cwt.	406
Bottles	—	—	5,124 doz.	1,281	5,124 doz.	1,281
Brazili	39 pa.	2,951	5 pa.	152	44 pa.	3,103
Brimstone	—	—	—	—	—	—
Cabinet ware and Upholstery	66 pa.	5,907	12 pa.	2,165	78 pa.	8,072
Chillies, dried	185 cwt.	960	—	—	185 cwt.	960
China ware	157 pa.	4,203	25 pa.	402	182 pa.	4,605
Civet	92 lbs.	2,275	14 lbs.	353	106 lbs.	2,628
Clocks and Watches	59 No.	876	—	—	59 No.	876
Coals	19,552 tons.	416,220	100 tons	2,500	19,452 tons	418,720
Cocoa-nuts	108,000	1,663	—	—	108,000 No.	1,663
Coffee	4,667 cwt.	93,029	16,437 cwt.	272,545	21,104 cwt.	365,574
— Husks (Gheesa)	—	—	140 cwt.	782	140 cwt.	782
Coir and Coir Rope	335 cwt.	1,505	103 cwt.	402	440 cwt.	1,907
Confectionary and Preserves	131 pa.	2,081	35 pa.	412	181 pa.	2,493
Coral	32 lbs.	959	35 lbs.	1,100	67 lbs.	2,059
Cotton	9,972 cwt.	119,674	1,366 cwt.	16,368	11,338 cwt.	136,042
Dates	29,878 cwt.	51,434	7,657 cwt.	13,329	37,535 cwt.	64,773
Date-juice	82 pa.	417	100 pa.	408	182 pa.	825
Dried Fruits, not otherwise enumerated	94 pa.	990	300 pa.	3,017	394 pa.	4,007
Drugs, not otherwise enumerated	203 pa., 23 cwt.	5,671	79 pa.	1,136	273 pa., 23 cwt.	6,807
Earths and Earthenware	159 pa.	1,390	47 pa.	260	206 pa.	1,650
Feathers	784 lbs.	1,704	116 lbs.	644	900 lbs.	2,348
Fireworks	10 pec, 28 pa.	520	—	—	10 pec, 28 pa.	520
Frankincense	438 cwt.	2,926	222 cwt.	1,202	660 cwt.	3,498
Furniture and Wooden ware	476 pa.	3,904	219 pa.	702	695 pa.	4,606
Galls	8 cwt.	332	—	—	8 cwt.	332
Ghee (clarified Butter)	2,964 cwt.	71,147	320 cwt.	7,763	3,284 cwt.	78,810
Ginger, dry	2,037 cwt.	8,943	476 cwt.	2,316	2,513 cwt.	11,259
Glass ware	75 pa.	2,204	10 pa.	286	85 pa.	2,490
Grains:—						
Rice	31,930 cwt.	94,218	8,824 cwt.	25,734	40,754 cwt.	119,952
Wheat	6,947 cwt.	20,923	192 cwt.	553	7,139 cwt.	21,476
Gram	540 cwt.	1,622	—	—	540 cwt.	1,622
Jowarree	6,642 cwt.	13,285	3,153 cwt.	6,305	9,795 cwt.	19,590
Dhall and Moog	1,174 cwt.	3,798	—	—	1,174 cwt.	3,798
All other sorts	174 cwt.	320	—	—	174 cwt.	320
Grease and Fat	17 cwt.	196	37 cwt.	465	54 cwt.	651
Gowla	41 cwt.	1,029	—	—	41 cwt.	1,029
Gums:—						
Arabic	7,884 cwt.	123,125	5,807 cwt.	83,677	13,691 cwt.	206,802
Myrrh	456 cwt.	13,652	624 cwt.	18,474	1,080 cwt.	32,126
Gunny Bags	47 pa., 94 cor.	2,333	20 pa.	240	67 pa., 94 cor.	2,573
Hardware and Cutlery	258 pa.	5,260	71 pa.	804	329 pa.	6,064
Hides and Skins	146 cor.	2,163	1,781 cor.	4,773	2,227 cor.	6,936
Honey	9 cwt.	223	15 cwt.	399	24 cwt.	622
Indigo	3 cwt.	91	—	—	3 cwt.	91
Ivory	123 cwt.	24,838	127 cwt.	25,254	250 cwt.	50,092
Jaggree (vorse Sugar)	924 cwt.	3,292	—	—	924 cwt.	3,292
Lime-juice	980 galls.	475	—	—	980 galls.	475
Machinery	15 pa.	150	—	—	15 pa.	150
Marine Stores	177 pa.	6,264	32 pa.	2,958	209 pa.	9,222
Mats	4,899 pa.	7,494	349 pa.	663	5,248 pa.	8,157
Mats, Bags, and Baskets	224 pa.	1,281	—	—	224 pa.	1,281
Mat-rope	281 pa.	1,441	23 pa.	131	304 pa.	1,572
Rushes (Jowlees)	2,511 pa.	1,963	—	—	2,511 pa.	1,963
Metals:—						
Iron	3,857 cwt.	23,458	1,374 cwt.	7,593	5,231 cwt.	31,051
Steel	730 cwt.	7,297	154 cwt.	1,424	884 cwt.	8,721
Carried forward	—	12,08,967	—	626,528	—	17,33,095

in height.) Incisions are made from which the juice flows, is removed when dry, and packed in goat-skins. Coffee, cotton, dates, and numerous drugs and dyes are also attainable, of excellent quality. Arabia at one period contained several extensive cities, and a large and flourishing population: by British commerce and Christian civilisation the descendants of Ishmael might again become the greatest

ITEMS OF TRAFFIC AT ADEN IN 1851-'52.

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and Export Trade of the Port of Aden for the Official Year 1851-'52.

Classification of Goods.	Imports.		Exports.		Totals.	
	Quantity.	Rupees.	Quantity.	Rupees.	Quantity.	Rupees.
Amounts brought forward .	—	13,10,167	—	579,286	—	19,17,453
Lead	2,711 cwt.	27,585	429 cwt.	4,294	3,140 cwt.	31,879
Copper	482 cwt.	22,797	263 cwt.	12,158	745 cwt.	34,955
Spelter	1,332 cwt.	14,346	927 cwt.	9,765	2,259 cwt.	24,111
Refined Tin	30 cwt.	1,072	5 cwt.	162	35 cwt.	1,234
Millinery and Haberdashery	38 pa.	4,040	—	—	38 pa.	4,040
Munjeet Madder	305 cwt.	3,377	1,744 cwt.	19,195	2,049 cwt.	22,572
Musical Instruments	4 pa.	1,280	—	—	4 pa.	1,280
Oils:—						
Cocoa-nut	1,075 cwt.	8,638	—	—	1,075 cwt.	8,638
Jingely	514 cwt.	4,212	—	—	514 cwt.	4,212
Other sorts	15 pa., 10 cwt.	514	—	—	15 pa., 10 cwt.	514
Oilman's Stores	307 pa.	6,750	80 pa.	420	387 pa.	7,170
Perfumery	32 pa.	2,067	—	—	32 pa.	2,067
Piece Goods	4,642 pa.	578,105	4,172 pa.	352,423	8,814 pa.	930,528
Plate and Jewellery	5 pa.	1,364	2 pa.	664	7 pa.	2,028
Plated ware	12 pa.	863	—	—	12 pa.	863
Provisions	1,731 pa., 148 cwt.	12,211	12 pa., 148 cwt.	474	1,743 pa., 296 cwt.	12,685
Pudras	30 cwt.	159	314 cwt.	3,673	344 cwt.	3,832
Queen's ware	22 pa.	1,308	—	—	22 pa.	1,308
Rose-water and Flowers	239 pa., 40 cwt.	1,026	30 pa., 7 cwt.	112	269 pa., 47 cwt.	1,138
Saddlery and Leather ware	53 pa.	1,152	—	—	53 pa.	1,152
Salt	354 tons	1,806	334 tons	1,691	688 tons	3,497
Saltpetre	202 cwt.	1,393	—	—	202 cwt.	1,393
Seeds:—						
Cotton	570 cwt.	732	—	—	570 cwt.	732
Jingely	6,482 cwt.	23,889	29 cwt.	104	6,511 cwt.	23,993
Other sorts	423 cwt.	2,285	76 cwt.	364	499 cwt.	2,649
Senna-leaf	—	—	—	—	—	—
Silk	512 lbs., 1,374 cor.	28,596	322 lbs., 351 cor.	7,983	834 lbs., 1,725 cor.	36,579
Soap (Country)	184 cwt.	920	—	—	184 cwt.	920
Soda-water and Lemonade	2,352 doz.	3,376	—	—	2,352 doz.	3,376
Soornah	32 cwt.	633	8 cwt.	174	40 cwt.	807
Spices:—						
Pepper	1,267 cwt.	11,871	375 cwt.	3,470	1,642 cwt.	15,341
Cloves	51 cwt.	1,400	4 cwt.	121	55 cwt.	1,521
Cassia	149 cwt.	2,833	73 cwt.	1,177	222 cwt.	4,010
Cardamoms	32 cwt.	3,792	—	—	32 cwt.	3,792
Other sorts	14 pa.	284	—	—	14 pa.	284
Spirits	13,060 galls.	26,619	—	—	13,060 galls.	26,619
Stationery	169 pa.	6,024	21 pa.	1,452	190 pa.	7,476
Sugar and Candy	4,872 cwt.	46,946	564 cwt.	7,208	5,436 cwt.	54,154
Sundries	450 pa., 277 cwt.	9,800	300 pa.	2,072	810 pa., 277 cwt.	11,872
Tamarinds	495 cwt.	793	—	—	495 cwt.	793
Tea	100 cwt.	5,288	—	—	100 cwt.	5,288
Thread Cotton (Country)	259 cwt.	4,654	166 cwt.	2,996	425 cwt.	7,650
Tobaccos:—						
Tobacco	4,767 cwt.	57,160	2,270 cwt.	25,428	7,037 cwt.	80,588
Snuff	1,574 pa.	34,788	160 pa.	2,962	1,734 pa.	37,750
Cheroots	261,050 No.	3,144	—	—	261,050 No.	3,144
Gorocco	138 cwt.	1,751	20 cwt.	246	158 cwt.	1,997
Tortoiseshell	850 lbs.	4,774	260 lbs.	890	1,110 lbs.	5,664
Turmeric	627 cwt.	2,714	216 cwt.	900	843 cwt.	3,614
Twist Cotton	23,580 lbs.	10,541	20,466 lbs.	9,065	44,046 lbs.	19,606
Vinegar (Country)	78 pa., 300 galls.	740	—	—	78 pa., 300 galls.	740
Vermillion	7 cwt.	1,632	—	—	7 cwt.	1,632
Wax, and Wax and Sperm Candles	33 cwt.	2,550	41 cwt.	1,530	74 cwt.	4,080
Wines:—						
Spanish	1,693 galls.	9,816	—	—	1,693 galls.	9,816
Portugal	151 galls.	909	—	—	151 galls.	909
French	471 galls.	3,808	—	—	471 galls.	3,808
Other sorts	302 galls.	2,197	—	—	302 galls.	2,197
Liqueurs	80 pa.	1,342	49 pa.	682	129 pa.	2,024
Wood:—						
Agla	37 cwt.	17,900	23 cwt.	11,080	60 cwt.	28,980
Sandal	47 cwt.	278	—	—	47 cwt.	278
Plants and Rafters	loose	4,960	loose	1,075	loose	6,305
Warrus (a dye)	5 cwt.	424	348 cwt.	27,825	353 cwt.	28,429
Totals	—	22,46,895	—	10,36,713	—	32,83,608
Treasure	—	10,59,860	—	688,760	—	17,48,620
Grand Totals	—	33,06,755	—	17,25,473	—	50,32,228

merchants of the east: and as they acknowledge one true and living God, they might through His grace, and by English instrumentality, be brought to the conviction of a necessity for one sufficient atone-

ment and ever-present Mediator. Christianity has attempted less in Arabia than in any other region; it should specially aim at the subjugation of Islamism in its stronghold.

SECTION IV.

PENANG (OR PRINCE OF WALES' ISLAND), MALACCA, AND SINGAPORE.

THE picturesque island of Penang, on the west coast of the Malay peninsula, in $5^{\circ} 15'$ to $5^{\circ} 29'$ N. lat., and 100° E. lon., extends sixteen miles north and south, is twelve miles broad at the north end, and decreases to eight at the south, with a range of lofty hills in the centre; the area is computed at one hundred square miles.

When first known to Europeans the island was an untenanted waste, covered with forests, and formed part of the possessions of the King of Quedah on the neighbouring coast. In 1785, Captain Light, the commander of a "country ship" in India, having married the King of Quedah's daughter, received the gift of the island as a marriage portion; and having transferred it to the E. I. Company, they entered into a treaty with the Malay ruler (professedly to last as long as the sun and moon gave light!), and agreed to pay him six thousand dollars annually, which sum, in 1800, was raised to ten thousand, in consideration of the additional concession of a tract on the mainland opposite Penang, extending thirty-five miles along the coast, and four miles inland from the south bank of the Qualla Mudda to the north bank of the Krian river, lat. $5^{\circ} 20'$ N.: area about 140 square miles. To this territory the name of Wellesley Province was given, in honour of the distinguished nobleman, then governor-general of India.

PHYSICAL ASPECT.—The valley of Penang, about three miles in breadth, is the level part of the island on its eastern side, and extends from the hills to the sea: it is of a triangular shape, the ranges of mountains forming the base, the apex, called Tanjong, jutting into the harbour, and having George Town and the fort of Penang built on it; while private houses extend three miles in every direction from the point. Almost the whole of the northern shore is mountainous, and through the centre of the island runs a range of hills, which decrease in height and magnitude as they approach the south coast. On the west and south of the mountains there is a considerable quantity of level ground of good quality, and generally well cultivated. Indeed, two-thirds of Penang is

level, or has a gentle inclination. The east, owing to its moistness, is covered with rice-fields; the south and west valleys, though partly tilled for the same purpose, are chiefly laid out in pepper gardens and spice plantations. Everywhere close to the coast, as in Ceylon, there is an extensive belt of cocoa-nut trees; and scattered over the island, in various groups, are groves of the graceful areka palm (or Penang), from which the isle takes its Malay name. The hills and low grounds, where not cultivated, are thickly covered with wood. Vegetation is extremely luxuriant, and for several miles the eye rests on one dense mass of mountain forest. Besides George Town (the capital) there is only one large assemblage of houses, entitled James Town, situated on the seashore, four miles to the southward. Numerous small villages and Malay topes are scattered over the island, especially on the south side, often beautifully and romantically situated on the coast, or amidst spice groves in the vales.

The hill called the "Highlands of Scotland" is 1,428 feet above the sea, and the situation and climate is delightful. The whole of the valley is of alluvial formation; and it would appear that the sea once washed the base of the mountains; for on the opposite shore of Quedah, successive deposits of alluvial matter have been traced for several miles inland, indicating the gradual retirement of the ocean, ridges being observable running parallel with the present line of coast.*

The harbour of George Town is capacious and well defended, with good anchorage; it is formed by a strait about two miles wide, that separates Penang from the opposite Quedah coast on the Malayan peninsula: the whole navy of Great Britain might find shelter therein. The sea is placid throughout the year, and the periodical effects of the monsoons little felt, the winds partaking more of the character of land and sea breezes.

When storms rage at sea the tides are affected, and become irregular in their flow

* Several interesting details of this picturesque island were published by Dr. Ward, of the Madras service, in the *Singapore Chronicle* of July, 1833.

through the islands, sometimes running in one direction for several days with great rapidity, and then changing to another. The town is neat; the streets wide, straight, and at right angles; the buildings are respectable, and the Chinese shopkeepers (who are the principal tradesmen) lay out their "godowns" (or warehouses) tastefully. The roads are among the best in India.

CLIMATE.—January and February are dry and hot months; November and December rainy ones; but excepting during the two first-named, a week seldom elapses without refreshing showers. The thermometer on Flagstaff-hill (2,248 feet high) never rises above 78° Fah. (seldom to 74°), and falls to 66°; on the plain it ranges from 76° to 90°. The climate is considered remarkably healthy. The temperature of the high land of Penang resembles that of Funchal at Madeira, possessing the advantage of a very limited range of thermometer, the greatest variation in twenty-four hours being 11°, and generally only three or four. The lightness and purity of the atmosphere elevate the spirits when suffering from the depression usually caused by long residence in the tropics, while the splendid and varied scenery, formed by stately forests, hill, and dale, the calm ocean around studded with rich verdant isles, and the opposite coast of Quedah with chains of mountains towering ridge over ridge, combined with the health-inspiring breezes, render a residence among the gardens of Penang a delightful restora-

tive to invalids, who not unfrequently resort thither.

GEOLOGY.—The mountains are entirely composed of fine gray granite, and the smaller hills are of the same material, excepting some near the coast which are formed of *laterite*, as is also Saddle Island, on the south-west of Penang. A tin mine was worked some years ago in the hills, and probably many valuable minerals exist, equal in quality to those of the contiguous Malayan peninsula.

The **SOIL** is generally a light black mould mixed with gravel and clay; in some parts there is a rich vegetable ground, formed by the decayed leaves of the forest, with which the island has for ages been covered: the coast soil is sandy, but fertile.

VEGETABLE KINGDOM.—The botany of the island is rich and varied. On the mountains grow the poon, bitanger, rangas, red poon, dammerlaut, wood-oil tree, the cypress, and some superb species of arborescent ferns. The caoutchouc or elastic gum winds round all the trees in a spiral form. All the Malacca fruits, with the exception of the *duku*, grow in great abundance: the sugar-cane and pepper-vine are extensively cultivated: the quantity of pepper annually produced is large: cloves and nutmegs thrive well; the former cover the tops of the cleared summits; the latter are found in every part of the valley: one plantation alone, belonging to the hospitable planter whom I visited in 1844,* oc-

* The value of Penang, as a spice island, has been manifested from a period nearly cotemporary with that of its first settlement. Pepper engrossed the consideration of capitalists for many years, until the market price fell so low that their returns scarcely more than repaid the outlay. But previous to this check another source of gain had been opened by the cultivation of the nutmeg and clove tree. In 1798 a few spice plants were imported from the Dutch spice islands; and two years later there were brought from Amboyna 5,000 nutmeg and 15,000 clove plants. In 1802 a further and larger supply arrived, the collection of the government agent, Mr. Hunter, comprising no less than 25,026 seedling nutmeg trees, and 175 plants of ages varying from four to seven years. Shortly before this last period a government spice garden had been established, comprising 130 acres of land, lying on the slopes which skirt the base of the hill near Annie's Mills, a romantic spot, and well watered by a running stream now called Ayer Putih. This plantation, in some respects a mere nursery, contained, in the year above mentioned, 19,628 nutmeg plants, varying from one to four years' growth, 3,459 being four years of age. There were also 6,259 clove trees, of which 669 were above six and under seven years' growth. In the same year (1802), Mr. Smith, the

botanist of the E. I. Company, reported that he had imported, in all, to the island at that date, 71,266 nutmeg and 55,264 clove plants, out of which a few were reserved for the botanical gardens at Kew, Calcutta, and Madras. Most of the plantations now in a productive and healthy state have been propagated from nuts yielded by some of the original importations, and a number of nutmeg trees which had been planted on the face of a hill and abandoned, were, after the lapse of about four years, rescued from thick jungle and found to be in a lively condition and bearing fruit. The wild nutmeg is indigenous to Penang, being an inhabitant of the hills. It is a tall forest tree, and bears a more oval-shaped fruit than the nutmeg of commerce. Both the nut and mace are less pungent and more astringent than the true spice, yet the Chaliahs have been in the habit of gathering them and selling them in the native bazaars. Several varieties are cultivated at Penang, and are chiefly distinguishable from one another by the tinge of the leaf and shape of the nut. In some, the former is small and light in colour, in others dark and large. In one the nut is oval or egg-shaped, hanging on separate tendrils of four or five inches in length; in another it resembles a small peach; and in a third it is small and nearly circular. In 1805 there were only twenty-three bearing clove

cupies a space of several square miles; coffee yields abundantly; extensive fields of pine-apples are found at the foot of the mountains; the tea plant grows wild; ginger, cinnamon, cotton, tobacco, and in fact every intertropical production is capable of being brought to the highest state of perfection.*

ZOOLOGY, &c.—The Malayan elk (*ceruus equinus*) is found in the deep forests; the mouse and the spotted deer are very abundant; monkeys, the lemur volans, the wild cat, otter, and bat, form the only indigenous animals; and the snakes, as in all tropical isles, are numerous; a species of boa (the *python* of Cuvier), eighteen to twenty feet long, is found in the hills. Beef, mutton, and pork of excellent flavour, and a great variety of fish, furnish the bazaar.

POPULATION.—When the company's establishment was formed at Penang, in 1786, the only inhabitants were a few miserable fishermen on the sea-coast. In consequence of the disturbances in the Malayan principalities, and the encouragement given to settlers by the E. I. Co., a native population of various descriptions arose. The population of the settlement was, in 1821, 38,057; in 1828, 60,551, viz., about 33,500 on Penang, and 22,600 on Wellesley Province: 33,500 were Malays; 10,000 Chinese; 6,000 Chaliahs; and the remainder consisted of various neighbouring tribes. In 1853, the numbers were computed to be—on Penang, 39,589; on Wellesley Province, 51,509 = 91,098.

The returns of trade, revenue, and statistical information generally, are very imperfect; the island, and also Malacca, are under the authority of the governor of Singapore, who occasionally resides for a brief period annually at either settlement.

As a commercial and maritime station, Penang has many advantages; serving as an entrepôt for the various produce of China, the eastern islands and Straits, the native

merchants from which take back in return British and Indian goods. It was at one time contemplated to form an extensive arsenal and ship-building dépôt at George Town; and several fine vessels were built there, but the object was ultimately abandoned. It formed a rendezvous for the British squadron in the Indian seas during the Burmese war, for which purpose its position, salubrity, and abundant supplies admirably qualify it.†

MALACCA.—The Malayan peninsula is 775 miles long, with an average breadth of 125 miles. Near its southern extremity, in 2° 14' N. lat., 102° 12' E. lon., is situated the British settlement of Malacca, extending about forty miles along shore by thirty inland, and containing an area of 1,000 square miles: bounded on the north by Salengore, at Cape Rochado; on the south by Johore, at the river Muar; on the east by the Rumbö country; and on the west by the Straits of Malacca.

HISTORY.—The Malayan peninsula, although the great majority of the inhabitants are Malays, is not the original country of those active, restless, courageous, but too generally vindictive and ferocious people.

The present possessors (or Malayan princes and their subjects) migrated hither in the middle of the 13th century from Palembang in Sumatra, and founded the city of Malacca about the year 1252. As they extended their colonisation, the aborigines of the peninsula, who were oriental negroes with woolly hair, jet black skin (the Malays are copper-coloured), thick lips, and flat nose, like the African, and of diminutive stature, were driven inland to the mountains, where some of their posterity still exist. The Malayan chiefs soon became involved in hostilities with their neighbours, partly, perhaps, because their sultan, Mohammed Shah, adopted the Mohammedan religion from the Arabs, then the great

trees in the company's gardens; and in October, 1834, these gardens were sold for the trifling sum of 9,658 dollars. They contained then 5,163 nutmeg trees, 1,625 clove trees, and 1,050 seedlings. The whole being sold in lots, many of the trees were dug up and transplanted to other quarters of the island, and thus dispersed; numbers were lost from mismanagement. In 1810, the total number of nutmeg trees on the island was about 13,000, of which some hundreds only were in bearing, and from such clove trees as were then productive, a supply of 20,000 plants was obtained. There are now probably not less than 100,000 nutmeg trees in the island of Penang,

* Sugar is now being cultivated with success. When I visited the island, in 1844, the merchants and planters justly complained of the disadvantages under which they laboured: their spices were in fact subject to heavier duties, when entering the British markets, than those of their competitors the Dutch; and their sugar was absolutely prohibited in England. I submitted these grievances to Sir Robert Peel, in 1845, and they were promptly remedied.

† The inhabitants of Penang are chiefly Europeans and Chinese; the Indians and Malays preferring (as the French traveller, Dr. Yoan, truly remarks) to dwell in the country, under shady fruit-trees and fragrant flowers.—(*Sir Moischelzles Malays.*)

traders in the east. Although the rulers of Malacca were able to resist the attacks of the Siamese on their chief city, they were compelled to yield to the conquering Portuguese, who, in 1511, obliged Sultan Mohammed Shah, the twelfth of his dynasty, and the seventh of the city of Malacca, to retreat, after an obstinate resistance, to the extremity of the peninsula, where he founded the principality of Johore, which still exists. The Portuguese held Malacca until 1610, though with great difficulty, against the repeated assaults of the sultans of Acheen; it was then assailed by the Dutch, who gained possession after a six months' siege. In 1795 it was seized by the British, but restored to the Dutch at the peace of Amiens, in 1801. On the breaking out of the European war, in 1807, it was again taken by the English, but restored at the peace of 1815; finally, in 1825, it was obtained by England, together with the fort of Chinsurah on the river Hooghly, twenty miles from Calcutta, in exchange for the British settlements on the large and valuable island of Sumatra.

PHYSICAL ASPECT.—The sea-coast is rocky and barren, with detached islets of cavernous rocks, which the Chinese used as places of sepulture. The interior is mountainous, being a prolongation of the Tenasserim Alpine chain, which is continued to the extremity of the peninsula; the greatest elevation (named by the natives *Lealdang*, by the Portuguese *Mount Ophir*) has an altitude of 4,000 feet above the sea. Colonel Farquhar was nearly six hours ascending to the table surface on the summit, which does not exceed forty yards square. The whole mountain appears to be a solid block of granite, here and there thinly covered with decayed vegetable soil; stunted firs are found near the top; and the vegetation is quite different from that met with in the plains and valleys. The principal rivers are the *Muar* and *Lingtuh*; small streams and riuulets are very numerous. The extreme point of the peninsula is a cluster of islets; the roadstead is safe; and in the south-west monsoon, vessels not drawing more than sixteen feet of water are secure in a harbour under the lee of the fort. Violent tempests are never felt in its excellent anchoring ground: the Sumatra squalls, which are common to the Straits, seldom last above an hour or two.

CLIMATE.—The climate is reckoned one of the healthiest in India, the temperature

being uniform, the thermometer ranging from 72° to 85° the whole year round. The mornings and evenings are cool, and sultry nights like those of Hindoostan are rarely experienced. There is no regular monsoon, but the rainiest months are September, October, and November. The fluctuation of the barometer throughout the year is trifling, the range being 30·3 to 29·83, giving an annual variation of only one-fifth of an inch. The average of casualties in the garrison, for seven years, was at the rate of only two per hundred.

POPULATION.—The population of the settlement of Malacca,* during the palmy days of Portuguese power in the east, was probably very considerable. In 1750, the inhabitants only numbered 9,863; in 1766, 7,216; in 1817, 19,627; in 1822, 22,000: in 1836 the amount had augmented to 33,162, with 6,449 houses; of these 233 were whites, 2,289 descendants of Portuguese, 23,300 Malays, and 5,000 Chinese. In 1853 there were 54,021 inhabitants in the settlement.

EDUCATION.—A valuable institution, called the Anglo-Chinese college, was established in 1818, by the joint efforts of the late Rev. Drs. Morrison and Milne. The object in view was the reciprocal cultivation of Chinese and European literature, and the instruction of native youths in the principles of Christianity. Several valuable and interesting translations were made of the leading Chinese books, and English standard works were translated into Chinese: a foundry for types was established, paper manufactured, and a periodical commenced. The opening of China to British intercourse has diminished the necessity for this establishment.

NATURAL PRODUCTIONS.—The staple of the settlement is the tin mines, all of which are within a circuit of twenty-five miles round Malacca. In the valleys vegetation is extremely luxuriant; rice yields from 200 to 300 fold; the sugar-cane is equal to any produced in other parts of the globe; coffee, cotton, indigo, chocolate, pepper, and spices have all been tried, and thrive remarkably well. The spontaneous productions of the soil are numerous, consisting of an almost endless variety of fruits and vegetables. The country is covered with durable timber for ship and house building; the *Marbon* tree, which is nearly equal to teak, is extremely abundant. Canes

* The inhabitants of Malacca, in 1830, came to a unanimous resolution to liberate every slave in the settlement on 31st December, 1841.

and rattans form a considerable branch of the exports; the forests yield gums, resins, and oils in abundance; the camphor tree grows near the south-east extremity of the peninsula; a variety of medicinal plants and drugs may be observed in the woods; and the nutmeg is indigenous. If the gold and tin mines in the vicinity of Malacca were scientifically worked, they would prove of great value; at present, the Malay and Chinese miners seldom dig below six or ten feet, and, as the veins become thin, remove from place to place.* The gold from Hoolo Pahang, 100 miles inland from Malacca, is of the purest quality; and there are some small mines of gold at the foot of Mount Ophir, called Battang Moring, about thirty-six miles from Malacca.

Wax, cutch, dammeer, fish maws, sharks' fins, and birds' nests (for Chinese soups), rattans, camphor, betel-nuts, gold-dust, sago, dragon's blood, ivory, hides, aguilla and sappan-woods, &c., are among the principal productions; poultry, hogs, buffaloes, and fish are plentiful and cheap. During the progress of the expedition against Java in 1811, thirty thousand troops, with their followers, were daily supplied with fresh provisions in great variety.

COMMERCE.—Malacca, being situate between the two great island emporiums of the Eastern Archipelago—Penang and Singapore, the one at the north-west, and the other at the south-east of the Straits—has necessarily a trade limited to its own consumption and produce. Before the establishment of commercial settlements at Penang and Singapore, and during the monopolising sway of the Dutch, Malacca was a place of considerable traffic.

Weights and Measures.—Throughout the Straits of Malacca the common weights are the pecul, catty,

* The Chinese and Malay miners use lead and antimony for the adulteration of the tin. Antimony has the effect of hardening the admixture with lead, thereby increasing the difficulty of detection, as regards external appearance. The mode of working the mines in places appropriated by the Malays and the Chinese separately is very nearly similar, except at Sungie Hujung, where the Chinese chain-pump is advantageously used for raising the water out of the mine-pit. The apparatus is simple, consisting of a common water-wheel, a circular wooden chain about forty feet in circumference, and a long square box or trough, through which it runs in ascending. The wheel and chain revolve on a common axis, so that the motion of the former necessarily puts the latter into action. The chain consists of square wooden floats, a foot distant from each other, and strung as it were upon a continuous flexible axis, having a movable joint between each pair. As the

and tael. The Malay pecul, three of which make a bahar, is heavier than the common or Chinese pecul, which is = 133½ lbs. Rice and salt are usually sold by the coyan of forty peculs nearly, and gold-dust by the bunkal = 832 grs. troy. The gantang (by which grain, fruit, and liquids are sold) = 1½ English gallon, is divided into two bamboos. Twenty gantangs of rice make a bag, and forty bags a coyan. Cloth is measured by the astah or coid of eighteen inches nearly. Land, by the orlong of twenty jumbas = 1½ acre.

The *Currency* of the Straits is Spanish dollars.

SINGAPORE (*Singhapura*).—This large trading settlement is situate on the southern extremity of the peninsula of Malacca just described, in 1° 17' 22" N. lat., 103° 51' 45" E. long.† It is elliptical in form, from twenty-five to twenty-seven miles in its greatest length from east to west, fifteen miles in its greatest breadth from north to south, and contains an estimated area of 275 square miles. Some fifty small isles, within ten miles around it, are scattered in the Straits; these have an area of about sixty miles; the whole settlement embracing a maritime and insular dominion of about 100 miles in circumference.

HISTORY.—The Malay annals relate that in A.D. 1252, Sri Iskander Shah, the last Malay prince of Singapore, being hard pressed by the King of Majapahit, in Java, returned to the mainland, where he founded the city of Malacca. That the Dutch or Portuguese may have settled on the island is probable, from the remains of religious buildings and other structures, which indicate its having been once thickly inhabited. On the design of Sir Stamford Raffles, the settlement of Singapore was first formed in February, 1818, and its sovereignty in its present extent confirmed to Great Britain in 1825, by a convention with the King of Holland and the Malay princes of Johore.‡

float-boards of the chain successively enter the lower part of the box or trough (immersed in water), a portion of water is constantly forced up by each, and discharged at the top. At one of the mines the simple but efficient mode of its application is thus described:—There are three distinct planes, or terraces, rising above each other. On the middle one is the wheel; the lower is the pit of the mine: from the higher a stream of water falls and turns the wheel, which puts the whole machine into motion, and brings up another stream from the pit; these two streams from above and below, unite on the middle plane and run off in a sluice, by which the ore is washed.

† This is the position of the town.

‡ A pension of 24,000 Spanish dollars a-year is, I believe, paid by the E. I. Company to the Malay prince rajah of Johore, as an equivalent for the cession of Singapore and the neighbouring isles.

When taken possession of by the E. I. Company, Singapore had been inhabited for eight years by about *one hundred and fifty Malays*, half fishermen and half pirates.

PHYSICAL ASPECT.—The island is separated on the northward from the neighbouring Malayan peninsula by a very narrow strait, which in its narrowest part is not more than a quarter of a mile wide. About nine miles distant from the opposite coast lies an extensive series of almost desert isles; the channel between these and Singapore (which may literally be called "*a corner shop*") is the main route of commerce between eastern and western Asia. The surface is low and level, with an extensive chain of saline and fresh-water marshes: several portions are covered with lofty timber and luxuriant vegetation; and here and there are rounded sand hills, interspersed with flat spots, the soil composed of a ferruginous clay with a sandy substratum.

The town stands on the south coast, on a point of land near the west end of a bay where there is a salt creek navigable for lighters nearly a mile from the sea; on the east side of the town is a deep inlet affording shelter to native boats. The town con-

sists generally of stone houses two stories high, but in the suburbs called Campong-Glam, Campong-Malacca, and Campong-China, bamboo huts are erected on posts, often in the midst of stagnant water. On the east side of the harbour enterprising British merchants have constructed substantial and ornamental houses fronting the sea, presenting a strong contrast to the wretched tenements of the Malays. The ground is generally raised three feet, and the mansions have a handsome entrance by an ascent of granite steps, surmounted by a portico supported by columns of every order of architecture: the rooms are lofty, with Venetian windows down to the floor, and furnished in a luxurious manner; each dwelling being provided with baths and billiard-tables; while the grounds are tastily laid out with shrubs of beautiful foliage, and combine to give the town a picturesque appearance when viewed from the roadstead.

CLIMATE.—Owing to proximity to the equator, and generally level surface, there is a high degree of temperature throughout the year, the mercury varying only from 73° to 85° Fah. The barometric range is also exceedingly small.

Months.	Barometer.						Thermometer.					
	Greatest Range.			Least Range.			Greatest Range.			Least Range.		
	6 A.M.	Noon.	6 P.M.	6 A.M.	Noon.	6 P.M.	6 A.M.	Noon.	6 P.M.	6 A.M.	Noon.	6 P.M.
January	30.03	29.06	29.59	29.90	29.90	29.57	77	86	83	72	75	74
February	30.02	30.04	30.00	29.88	29.91	29.87	79	87	85	94	82	78
March	29.97	29.99	29.97	29.83	29.85	29.83	80	88	86	73	76	79
April	29.99	29.99	29.95	29.85	29.87	29.82	81	87	87	73	80	79
May	29.94	29.99	29.91	29.83	29.84	29.82	81	87	86	75	78	80
June	29.98	29.97	29.97	29.80	29.86	29.82	84	88	87	75	77	77
July	29.95	29.96	29.92	29.82	29.83	29.83	82	88	85	73	78	77
August	29.95	29.99	29.95	29.85	29.88	29.84	81	87	85	75	78	78
September	29.99	30.03	29.98	29.85	29.87	29.83	82	87	85	74	76	77
October	29.96	29.97	29.95	29.85	29.88	29.80	79	88	86	75	76	79
November	29.91	29.95	29.93	29.80	29.83	29.89	79	86	86	71	80	79
December	29.94	30.00	29.98	29.82	29.85	29.82	78	85	86	73	75	75
Annual average	29.97	29.99	29.95	29.84	29.86	29.83	80.2	87	85.6	73.6	77.6	77.6

The periodical rains are indistinctly marked, and of short duration; the rainy days during the year are about 150. Evaporation is very rapid. The climate is not insalubrious even for Europeans, many of whom have resided here successive years in perfect health.

GEOLOGY.—Principal rock a red sandstone, which changes in some parts to a breccia or conglomerate, containing large fragments and crystals of quartz. The whole of the contiguous isles before-mentioned as scattered around Singapore, are apparently

of submarine origin, and their evulsion probably of no very distant date.

POPULATION.—In 1820 (the year after British occupation) the island began to be peopled and frequented; and the protection of the British flag induced many to resort to the place. In 1823, there were 10,683 permanent dwellers, of whom 74 were Europeans; Malays, 4,580; Chinese, 3,317; Buggies and other adjacent islanders, 1,851; the remainder consisted of natives of India, Armenians, Arabs, &c. In 1833, the population numbered 21,000—namely, Euro-

peans, 119; Chinese, 8,517; Malays, 7,131; and the remainder Indians, Armenians, &c. The males numbered 15,000; the females, 6,000. In 1853, the residents had augmented to 57,121, of various races. To the foregoing must be added about 1,000 convicts; with military establishment and camp followers, 600: making a grand total of about 60,000 persons, where a few short years ago there were not 100! The leading merchants, agents, shopkeepers, and auctioneers are Englishmen. There are several wealthy Chinese merchants; indeed the bulk of the traders, and the most valuable part of the citizens, are "the Celestials," several thousand of whom arrive annually from China by the yearly trading junks; about 1,000 settle at Singapore, and the remainder disperse themselves over the neighbouring islands. The Malays are chiefly fishermen, and the natives of the Coromandel coast boatmen.

There is a minister of the church of England and a few missionaries, who receive all possible encouragement from the excellent governor, Colonel Butterworth.

NATURAL PRODUCTIONS.—The island itself has few indigenous productions; it is in fact a commercial emporium, and probably will never be much more. Its chief staple is the agaragar of the Malays (*fucus saccharinus*), a fern-like plant, which abounds on the coral shoals around Singapore, and produces in China from six to eight dollars per pecul, in its dry bulky state. By the Chinese it is converted into glue and paint, used to glaze their cottons, and "sacrifice paper;" the finest portion is made into a rich jelly, which forms a delicious sweetmeat when preserved in syrup. The harvest of this sea-weed is from 6,000 to 12,000 peculs annually. There are about ten sago manufactories at Singapore, giving employment to 200 Chinese manufacturers. The famous gutta-percha* is chiefly brought from the neighbouring islands. Sugar,

nutmegs, and other spices are now being successfully cultivated by the Chinese.

COMMERCE.—As a trading entrepôt, Singapore presents a remarkable illustration of the advantage of position. In 1820, a few months after the British flag was hoisted, no less than 55,000 tons of European shipping called at the place to trade and for refreshments; and native vessels, of 13,000 tons burden, sailed with goods for neighbouring islands.

In 1821, one vessel cleared with a cargo of Straits produce for European markets; in 1822, four; in 1823, nine; in 1824, twelve (value of cargoes—Sp. dollars, 1,035,868); in 1825, fifteen; and so on increasing. In 1824, the exports were valued at 6,604,601; imports, 6,914,536 = 13,519,137 Sp. dollars.

The following statement shows the imports and exports of the settlement:—

1851-'52.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Rupees.	Rupees.	Rupees.
Imports .	20,262,080	4,614,871	34,876,951
Exports .	24,586,807	5,683,000	30,269,867
Total . .	54,848,887	10,297,931	65,146,818
	Trade of 1851-'52		58,089,225
	Increase in 1852-'53		6,457,593

The total arrivals and departures of European or American vessels, in 1852-'53, was 1,058, of which 733 were British, 135 Dutch, and 61 American: the total tonnage was 273,955. The total number of native vessels was 2,107, with a tonnage of 70,194.

GOVERNMENT.—A lieutenant-governor, appointed by the governor-general of India, aided by a small council. A recorder performs biennially, or more frequently, legal circuit through the settlements.

FINANCE.—The receipts from the three Straits Settlements, in 1819-'50, amounted to 674,196 rupees; the charges to 689,020 rupees: balance paid from Indian revenues, 14,824 rupees = £1,390.

* *Gutta-percha* (*tahan*), which now forms a large item of export from the Straits Settlements and the adjacent regions, has become an article of commerce within the last ten years, and already upwards of 3,000 tons have been imported into England. In 1811 I saw the article used at Penang for riding-whips, the only purpose to which it was then applied. The gum is obtained from a tree which grows sixty to eighty feet in height, and from two to three feet in diameter, with but a few small branches. The tree is cut down, and incisions made round it at intervals of about sixteen inches: the gutta or milky juice rapidly concretes, and, before boiling, has a dry ragged appearance like shreds of bark; it is light, tough, and with little apparent cohesive qualities.

It would require twenty trees, according to Dr. Oxley, to produce 133 lbs. Mr. P. L. Simmonds (who deserves credit for the attention he has paid to the gums, resins, and oils of commerce) estimates that about one million of trees of full growth must have been destroyed during the past nine years. The natives entertain no fear of the supply being exhausted. Various other inferior gums, the produce of trees quite different from the *tahan* proper, are now used in the adulteration of gutta-percha. The present import of this useful article amounts to about 21,000 cwt., at £5 10s. per cwt. = £120,000. The importation of the kindred substance (enouthou) is 27,000 cwt., at £7 per cwt. = £189,000. The sago pith is brought from the neighbouring islands.

SECTION V.—HONG-KONG.

SHORTLY after the war commenced between England and China, in July, 1840, the island of Hong-Kong was occupied by the British, under the directions of Captain Elliott, partly on account of the harbour which it forms in conjunction with the mainland, and partly because it was a convenient station for the opium smugglers, from whence to dispatch this deleterious drug to different parts of the Chinese coast. Previous to the treaty of Nankin and the termination of hostilities in July, 1842, the dependents, connections, and officials of her Majesty's plenipotentiary in China, and the leading opium traders, had secured the few eligible spots on which buildings could be erected,—formed markets, and were deriving an income from these and other sources. When, therefore, the plenipotentiary dictated the terms of peace to the Chinese commissioners, he named, to their great surprise, Hong-Kong (which they knew not even by name) as the only territory we required; and the word Chusan was struck out of the instructions sent from England, because, if this fine island had been retained, the advantageous position occupied by interested persons at Hong-Kong, would soon have been neutralised when Chusan became a flourishing colony. Yet the latter, as compared with the former, is like the Isle of Wight contrasted with one of the Scilly Isles; and its insignificant position and area are but portions of its numerous drawbacks.* With these preliminary remarks, I proceed to a brief description of this settlement.

LOCALITY.—Hong-Kong, which in the Chinese language signifies "Red Harbour," or "Flowing Streams," is in 22° 16' 27" N. lat., 114° 14' 48" E. long.; and lies about forty miles east of Macao. It forms one of a numerous but scattered group of lofty islands termed the "Ladrones," which vary in size and height, but agree in their arid and rugged features. The length of Hong-Kong is about eight miles east and west, with a breadth of two to four miles: it is separated from the mainland of China by a strait or inlet of the sea,

varying in breadth from half a mile to three miles; one entrance, the Lymoon Pass, is less than a mile wide.

PHYSICAL ASPECT.—The island consists of a broken ridge of mountainous hills running from W.N.W. to E.S.E., at an average height of about 1,000 feet; but from this ridge and its spurs various conical mountains rise to the height of 1,500 to 2,000 feet above the sea, and are very precipitous. The greater part of the coast shelves abruptly from the ocean, particularly on the north face; there are a few narrow valleys and deep ravines through which the sea occasionally bursts, or which serve as conduits for the mountain torrents; but on the north side of the island, especially where the town of Victoria is built, the rocky ridge approaches close to the harbour; and it was only by hewing through this ridge that a street or road could be made to connect the straggling series of buildings which extend along the water's-edge for nearly four miles, although comprising only about fifty European houses and some Chinese huts and bazaars. Here and there on the tops of some isolated hills, or along the precipitous slopes of the mountains, scattered houses have been constructed; but rugged, broken, and abrupt precipices, with deep rocky ravines, must effectually prevent any concentrated population from being able to provide efficiently for its own protection, cleanliness, and comfort. Hong-Kong cannot be said to possess any vegetation: a few goats with difficulty find pasturage. After the heavy rains of May, June, July, August, and September, the hills assume somewhat of a greenish hue; but the whity-brown or red-streaked ridges, with the scattered masses of black rocks, give a most uninviting and desolate aspect to the island, which is unrelieved by the adjacent mainland, whose physical features are precisely similar to those of Hong-Kong, the mountain-tops and sides presenting in many places a singularly heavy configuration and gloomy prospect.

GEOLOGY.—There is no igneous formation.

* In my official report on Chusan and on Hong-Kong, and in a minute on the British relations with China, transmitted to her Majesty's secretary of state, the circumstances connected with this dis-

credible transaction, and the fallacies put forth in its defence, were amply exposed to public view. The report on Hong-Kong is on the records of the House of Commons.

The island partakes of the same geological character as the coast of China group, south of the Quesan group of islands. The structure may be briefly described as consisting of decomposed coarse granite, intermixed with strata of a red, disintegrating sandstone, crumbling into a ferruginous-looking clay. Huge boulder-stones, which gunpowder will not blast, are imbedded in a stiff earth, or are else strewn over the tops and sides of the mountains. Gneiss and felspar are found in fragments, and there are indications of ironstone. That the granite is rotten, and passing, like a dead animal or vegetable substance, into a

putrescent state, is evidenced from the crumbling of the apparently solid mass beneath the touch, and from the noxious vapour (perhaps hydrogen) which it yields when a fierce sun succeeds to heavy rains. On examining the sites of houses in Victoria, whose foundations were being excavated in the sides of the hills, the strata appeared like a richly-prepared compost, emitting a fetid odour of the most sickening nature, which inhaled, at night especially, proved poisonous. This strata quickly absorbs any quantity of rain, which then returns to the surface in the character of a pestiferous mineral gas.* The position of the town of Victoria,

* *Rotten Granite*.—Lyell, in his *Principles of Geology*, vol. i., p. 317, says—“The disintegration of granite is a striking feature of large districts in Auvergne, especially in the neighbourhood of Clermont. This decay was called by Dolomieu ‘*la maladie du granit*,’ and the rock may with propriety be said to have the rot, for it crumbles to pieces in the hand. The phenomenon may, without doubt, be ascribed to the continual disengagement of carbonic acid gas from numerous fissures.” It is this gas which is evolved at the Grotto del Cane near Naples, and which is so pernicious to animal life. It is disengaged at Limagne d’Auvergne in France, in large quantities; a lighted candle or other burning substance being extinguished by the gas. Water materially aids, by its solvent power, the operation of carbonic acid gas in the decomposition of rocks. This gas is invisible, destitute of smell, much heavier than common air; owing to its specific gravity it may be poured from one vessel to another; may be collected over water, which largely absorbs it, and is highly deleterious to animals. It is discharged from the surface of the water of some natural springs, and from narrow and deep valleys. Other gases are evolved from the earth. Dolomieu states that he ascertained the presence of sulphurous acid, muriatic acid, hepatic gas or sulphuretted hydrogen, and inflammable air or hydrogen, as well as carbonic acid. The most abundant of the gases extricated from the bowels of the earth, next to carbonic acid gas, is probably carburetted hydrogen, which is so rapidly destructive of life in coal mines. It is also sometimes emitted from the surface of the soil, or of springs and wells. M. de la Beche describes the manner in which the disintegration of rocks takes place, owing to the protracted action of atmospheric moisture. The felspar contained in granite is often easily decomposed. Some trap rocks, from the presence of felspar, are liable to decomposition, as in parts of Jamaica. The main composition of granite is quartz, felspar, and mica. Some qualities contain only felspar and mica. This is generally the case in Hong-Kong, where felspar is found in large crystals looking like quartzose gravel. The sound granite of Hong-Kong is in isolated blocks. No drainage can ever render the place salubrious; and it is exceedingly desirable that the fallacious attempt should be renounced, as its only effect is to drain money from the British treasury. If further proof be wanting, it is to be found in the following facts adduced by Dr. Heyne, of the Madras artillery, and which I did not see until

after the text on the cause of sickness at Hong-Kong was written. The subject ought to be carefully attended to in the selection of sites for colonies, of towns, garrison stations, encampments, &c. Dr. Heyne observes that the ordinarily received opinions as to the vegetable or marshy origin of fevers will not hold good in Southern India, for “the hills are here not more woody than in other healthy places; some, indeed, where the epidemic of 1808 and 1810, as well as the endemic, were most destructive, are quite naked of trees, as Dindigul, Madura, and the rocks west of Seringapatam. Now, if it should be found, that this fever exists constantly and invariably among certain description of hills, when others of a different composition are as constantly free from the same, would it not become reasonable to suppose that the nature or composition of the rock itself must furnish the cause of the calamity? The hills where it is found to prevail, appear, at first view, to be quite harmless, as they are granite, which is the most common rock-kind on this globe. They contain, however, besides quartz, felspar, and mica, a great proportion of ferruginous hornblende, which, by its disintegration or separation from the rock, becomes highly magnetic, and in which, I suppose, the cause resides which produces this fever, besides a great train of other disorders. This iron hornblende occurs in such quantity that all rivulets, public roads, indeed, all hollows along these hills are filled with its sand; from which, also, all the iron in this part of the country is manufactured. This granite is remarkable for its disintegration, as it not only separates during the hot season in large masses of many tons, but crumbles as easily into its composing particles, and is found as sand in great abundance, not only near every rock, but near every stone, from whence it is carried by the torrents during the rains to the lower parts of the country, and thus forms the particular mark by which these hills may be distinguished from all others. It is generally not attracted by the magnet when united to the mass, even when it occurs as in hornblende slate, or greenstone, in the greatest abundance; but after it has been separated it is attracted as much as iron-filing. This may be owing to the incipient state of oxidation, or, more likely, to the development of magnetism by the high temperature to which it has been exposed in the hot season, which also may have weakened the cohesion of the rock, and caused its disintegration in the mass. Hills of this description form the principal ranges of the Ghauts, as far at least as the Godavery; they pre-

which may be likened to the bottom of a crater with a lake, prevents the dissipation of this gas, while the geological formation favours the retention of a morbid poison on the surface, which is occasionally called into fatal activity. There is no extent of marsh on the island capable of generating miasm; but the heavy rains are annually washing large portions of the mountain through deep ravines into the bay, and thus continually exposing a fresh rotten surface to the sun's rays, and preserving a focus of disease which will finally become endemic. Vast quantities of silt from the hills are being deposited along the shores of the harbour. Owing to this circumstance, and to the rapid receding of the tides from this coast, shoals are fast accumulating in the bay. The average depth is only four to five fathoms, except in the stream, where there are six to seven fathoms. In no great interval of time, the harbour of Hong-Kong will be, in many places, too occupied with shoals to admit large vessels.

CLIMATE.—It is difficult to convey by thermometrical registry an accurate idea of the climate of any place. The range of the thermometer will not indicate the pressure of the atmosphere; the barometer, in or near the tropics, is of little utility as an index; the hygrometer imperfectly shows

the quantity of rain in the air; while the height of the surrounding land, its configuration, the nature of the soil, the extent and quantity of the vegetation, the exposure to the sea and the prevailing winds, and the unseen but powerful effects of electro-magnetism,—all influence what is comprised under the word "climate." In some respects the whole coast of China partakes of the climatic characteristics of the opposite coast of the American continent, particularly as regards the extremes of temperature, and its depressing influence on mental and physical power.

For six months in the year (April to September), the heat varies from 80° to 90° Fah.; but during the other six months the heat is also occasionally excessive, the thermometer having been known to stand at 80° Fah. on Christmas-day. The island, being on the verge of the tropics, is subject to the extremes of the torrid and temperate zones. Even in the same day, the range of mercury in the thermometer is very great, and the vicissitudes are exceedingly trying to the European constitution.

But neither the range from heat to cold, nor the quantity of moisture in the atmosphere, will adequately convey an idea of the effects that this climate is capable of producing on the human frame. During April,

dominate also among the smaller, and in single hills and rocks in the low country, so that they might be taken as the exclusive rock formation of this country. However, fortunately, this is not quite the case. They are easily recognised at a distance by their very rugged and abruptly pointed appearance, and the great steepness at their tops. The ranges of this formation are also very interrupted, and generally consist of rows of single hills, although to the southward, I have found them also connected at bases, and in triple and quadruple ranges." This description answers for Hong-Kong. Dr. Heyne then gives an excellent topographic description of the hills "which have rendered themselves known to Europeans for the malignity of the fever," and after that of such as are "constantly free of the hill fever." This is the right kind of topography. The hills where the fever is "totally unknown," are "primitive trap, which consists of quartz, felspar, and real hornblende." The epidemic fever of 1808 stopped short at a range of hills of this latter composition, in the Coimbatore district. "At the Pulicat hills, among which, as far as they extend to the southward (Chittoor), the hill fever is totally unknown. They consist entirely of flinty slate, and are bare in some places as they are woody in others, and as lofty and as low as the granite hills. The Cuddapah district is divided from Gurrumcondah on the south, and from iron granite and the hill fever, by a range of flinty slate. The seam bends there to the northward, where the ranges thicken as they advance, and leave narrow valleys as far as Cummaur,

and further up the river Kishna. The whole or most of these hills belong to the clay-slate formation; some are calcareous; all, however, are free of the hill fever. Other fevers may occasionally be seen, such as simple intermittents and bilious remittents; but they do not, like the hill fever, run into a typhus, and the cautious may easily guard against and get rid of them. This is the largest extent of inland country free of the hill fever, viz., from Cuddapah to Kishna near Chintapilly, a place that has been at all times dreaded for its fevers. There the iron granite hills prevail again. To the westward of Cuddapah, the healthiness of the country extends to the Ganjicottah hills, which belong to the flint trap formation, consisting of sandstone, limestone, jasper, and hornstone pebbles cemented together, and which are perfectly free of magnetic ironstone. Bababuden is another range of hills which is remarkably free of hill fevers, although it lies between places of notoriety for such, as Seringapatam to the south-west, Chittledroog to the north-west, and Nag-gury to the west, an unwholesome country amongst the Ghauts. It belongs to the clay-slate formation, and active magnets are found in large depositions on them. It rains on them for six months in the year continually, when plants keep fresh and alive in the open air for many days after they have been taken out of the ground, or broken off the stem." In fact, according to the observation of Dr. Heyne, the hill fever on this coast exists exclusively among the hills of the granite formation, or where ironstone is found in large quantities.

and part of May, when the sun is approaching rapidly from the equator, there is a dry burning heat, with a cloudless sky; but towards the end of May, and throughout June, July, August, and part of September, the rain descends in torrents, with a force and continuance such as I have never seen in India, Africa, Australia, or any other part of the world. The clouds pour down one vast sheet of water, washing away hills and rocks, furrowing the island with deep ravines, and saturating the soft, porous, putrescent strata, to the extent of many feet, with daily renewed moisture.

In the intervals of rain a nearly vertical sun acts with an intense evaporating power, and a noxious steam or vapour rises from the fetid soil, yielding a gas of a most sickly and deleterious nature. This morbid gas does not arise from vegetable or from animal decomposition: there is none on the island to any extent; but decomposed mineral substances, as before stated, yield an aeriform poison, under some circumstances, of a more deadly description than the products of the other natural kingdoms. This gas does not rise more than a few feet from the earth; it mingles slowly with the surrounding atmosphere, and, when not causing immediate illness, produces a depressing effect on mind and body, which undermines and destroys the strongest constitutions.

Military and naval men who have served in Africa and in India, feel the effects of the sun in Hong-Kong in a manner never before experienced. Even at Macao, only forty miles west of Hong-Kong, Europeans may walk about the whole day in the month of July, when to do so at Hong-Kong would be attended with almost certain death. Neither the Indian sepoys, Malays, or Chinese can endure the climate so well as Europeans, whose stamina they do not possess. The Chinese deem it exceedingly dangerous to prolong their abode in the island beyond a certain time. They consider Hong-Kong

injurious to health, and even fatal to life. The Europeans who survive a brief residence in this climate generally have a lassitude of frame, and an irritability of fibre, which saps the spring of existence. A malign influence operates on the system in a most distressing manner, which is not removed by a return to Europe; on the contrary, the sufferers not unfrequently die soon after their arrival in England.

DISEASES AND MORTALITY.—The prevailing disease is a fever, combining the character of the African and West Indian fevers. It was first supposed to be epidemic, but it has now become endemic, and may be assumed to be the fixed malady of the island. Diarrhœa and dysentery form the next most immediately fatal class of diseases; but intermittent fever or ague destroys health gradually. In 1844, the strength, for the year, of the European and native troops was 1,526, and the number of soldiers who passed through hospital amounted to 7,893: thus, on an average, each man went through the hospital more than *five times in the year!* The sacrifice of life since our occupation of Hong-Kong has been enormous. Lieutenant-general d'Aguilar, when commanding the forces in China, wrote in 1845 to the Horse-guards, stating that a regiment of 1,000 men was *entirely destroyed in three years.** In 1849, the governor reported the mortality of the European troops, for the year 1848, as 20:43: in several preceding, and in subsequent years, this ratio was exceeded. It must be remembered that the invalidings and deaths on the passage to Europe are in an equal proportion. Recently the lives of many European soldiers have been saved by embarking them in transports moored in the centre of the harbour at the most sickly season.

Nor is it during only one period of the year that the island is unhealthy: in the cold season there are agues, low continued fever, diarrhœa, pulmonary complaints, dropsy, rheumatism, and various other diseases were sent to Saiwan. No sentry was to be mounted during the day, and but one at night. In five weeks five of the soldiers were dead, three more were in a dangerous state, and four were convalescent; one European woman and child were also dangerously ill. The remaining men were withdrawn, and a small detachment of native troops sent thither, in order to ascertain whether the climate would suit them. On the 17th July, 1844, only four men out of the twenty Europeans who had been to Saiwan, were reported fit for duty. The native soldiers died nearly as fast as the Europeans, and the post was ultimately abandoned.

* It was supposed that Saiwan, on the south-east side of Hong-Kong, would afford a healthy station for the troops: government expended a considerable sum of money in preparing and building a set of barracks, of two stories, with every view to comfort and health. The officer of the royal engineers having reported the cantonments to be habitable, the general in command sent a medical board to examine the building and station. The board reported that the station at Saiwan appeared healthy, that there was no apparent cause for disease, and that it was eligible for troops. The general resolved to begin with a small detachment, and twenty Europeans

cases arising from general debility of the system, and from the poisoned atmosphere.*

The mortality and sickness of Hong-Kong is not the result of the newness of the colony. New colonies, even in the tropics, have not been originally unhealthy. When the West India Islands were first colonised they were perfectly salubrious, as is proved by the large European population who resorted thither, and remained there many years. Calcutta and Bombay are reported to have been formerly much healthier than they are at present. The Australian colonies were perfectly healthy when founded; so also the Mauritius and St. Helena. I cannot name a single colony that was originally unhealthy, and that subsequently became salubrious. Soldiers, sailors, and civilians, Europeans and natives, women as well as men, residing in every part of Hong-Kong, have fallen victims to the climate, and at all seasons of the year.

An extensive study of the subject, and no inconsiderable experience in different climates, induces me to concur in the opinion of Dr. Thompson,† expressed when head of the medical department in China during the war—that the evil cannot be permanently ameliorated. The geological character, the immense quantity of rain, and the circumscription of hills surrounding the town and island, render them hotbeds of disease, which may be less destructive one year than another, but which will ever and anon recur with varied violence. No drainage can remove this destructive miasm; independent of new roads or buildings, the yearly rains keep the surface continually saturated with moisture, and further uncover large portions of the hills, washing the putrefying substance down the deep ravines towards the sea; thus generating fresh cause for disease.

POPULATION AND SOCIAL PROGRESS.—In January, 1841, natives of China were invited to settle in the island, under British protection, with a promise that they should be “governed according to the laws and customs of China, every description of tor-

ture excepted.” A form of administration was organised; a chief magistrate and a harbour-master appointed, and fifty lots of land sold in June, 1841, the annual rental of which amounted to £3,224. Each lot was required to have a building erected within six months, of the appraised value of 1,000 dollars; and a deposit of 500 dollars was required to be lodged with the treasurer, as a security for the performance of this engagement. Building commenced with great spirit; the government spent very large sums of money upon the island, and the harbour was filled with ships of war and transports. Hong-Kong has had a fair trial for fourteen years. It will be asked, what progress has been made in population?

On taking possession, it was found to contain about 7,500 inhabitants, scattered over twenty fishing villages and hamlets. The requirements of the fleet and troops, the demand for labourers to make roads and houses, and for servants for the Europeans, increased the number of inhabitants; and in March, 1842, they had augmented to 12,361. In April, 1844, the Chinese population on the island was computed at 19,000, of whom not more than 1,000 were women and children; in which number were included ninety-seven women slaves, and female attendants on thirty-one brothels, eight gambling-houses, and twenty opium shops. In 1849, the total was rated at 29,507. In December, 1852, the resident population of Victoria was 15,962, and that of the villages, 4,820 = 20,782. To this amount is to be added, 2,055 Chinese in the service of Europeans, 459 Portuguese from Macao and Goa, and 476 Europeans and Americans. There is a considerable floating population in boats, and many vagrants. Altogether, there are under 25,000 in the settlement: and not one respectable or wealthy Chinaman has ever fixed his permanent residence in Hong-Kong.‡ An individual of reputed wealth, named Chinam, who had been engaged in the opium trade, came to Hong-Kong, built a good house, and freighted a

* In 1843, the surveyor-general of the colony reported to the government that “the number of interments had been so great (in the European graveyard) that the enclosure was almost full, and the hill behind so rocky, that it was impossible to dig into it; therefore, ere long, it would be necessary to provide another place.” The surveyor further stated that it would be a difficult thing to select another appropriate tract, on account of the rocky and uneven nature of the island.

Dr. Thompson, in his report to the governor-

general of India, stated that regiments should be removed every three, if not every two years.

‡ The merchants and British residents in Hong-Kong, in a memorial to her Majesty's secretary of state, verify this observation: they say there is scarcely one foreign resident, except government officers, and those British merchants and traders who commenced building before the enforcement of the leases; there are no Chinese merchants, or even shopkeepers, with any pretensions to property! Few persons reside above a year or two.

ship. He soon returned to Canton, and died there of a fever and cold, contracted at Hong-Kong. It was understood, however, that had he lived he would have been prohibited returning to the island, as the policy of the mandarins on the adjacent coast is to prevent all respectable Chinese from settling at Hong-Kong; and in consequence of the hold they possess on their families and relatives, this can be done most effectually. At the same time, I believe that they encouraged the deportation of every thief, pirate, and idle or worthless vagabond from the mainland to Hong-Kong. The late distinguished Chinese scholar, Dr. Gutzlaff, who was engaged in making a census, says—"The most numerous class who have, since our arrival, fixed themselves on the island, are from Whampoa; many of them are of the worst character, and ready to commit any atrocity. The capital of the shopkeepers is very small; most of them live from hand to mouth, and lead a life of expedients, without principle or self-control. It is very natural that depraved, idle, and bad characters from the adjacent mainland and islands should flock to the colony, where some money can be made."*

Dr. Gutzlaff, whose prepossessions were strongly in favour of the Chinese, concludes this portion of the memorandum with which he favoured me, as follows:—"The moral standard of the people congregated in this place (Hong-Kong) is of the lowest description."

This observation is fully borne out by the numerous murders, piracies, burglaries, and robberies of every description which have taken place during the last fourteen years,

* A writer in the *London Times*, speaking of his experience at Hong-Kong, says—"The community is migratory, property most insecure, and life often in danger, from the bands of piratical robbers that infest this and the neighbouring islands. The place has nothing to recommend it, if we except its excellent harbour. The site of the new town of Victoria is most objectionable, there being scarcely level ground enough for the requisite buildings; and the high hills which overhang the locality shut out the southerly winds, and render the place exceedingly hot, close, and unhealthy. Many of the worst description of Chinese resort there; and I have seen, during one evening at Victoria, more open scenes of vice and debauchery than I had observed during my three years' stay in the north of China."

† *Friend of China* periodical, dated Victoria, 10th July, 1854.

‡ It is erroneously supposed that Singapore has prospered mainly through Chinese trade. Such is not the fact. The total import tonnage of Singapore in 1838 '39, in square-rigged vessels, was 178,796 tons, of which that from China was 32,860. The native

almost with impunity; for the Chinese villains are formed into secret societies for mutual protection, and no man, innocent or guilty, dares inform against another. The European inhabitants are generally obliged to sleep with loaded pistols under their pillows,—not unfrequently to turn out of their beds at midnight to protect their lives and property from gangs of armed robbers, who are ready to sacrifice a few of their number in return for ample plunder. In 1854, Hong-Kong was publicly asserted to be "the most filthy, disgusting colony of the British empire:"† the only one certainly to which such epithets can be justly applied.

An hallucination seems to have seized those who built houses here. They were told that Hong-Kong would rapidly "out-rival Singapore," and become "the Tyre or Carthage of the eastern hemisphere."‡ Unfortunately, the local government fostered the delusion respecting the colony. The leading officials bought land, built houses or bazaars, which they rented out at high rates, and the public money was lavished in the most extraordinary manner, building up and pulling down temporary structures, making zigzag bridle-paths over hills and mountains, and forming the "Queen's-road," of from three to four miles long, on which about 180,000 dollars have been expended, but which is not passable for half the year. The straggling settlement called "Victoria,"§ built along the aforesaid highway, was dignified with the name of "City;" and a high authority, Sir Henry Pottinger, prophesied that "Hong-Kong would contain a population equal to that of ancient Rome." The

tonnage for the same year was 48,000, of which the Chinese vessels constituted 8,000 tons. The Straits produce which the Chinese require are brought to Singapore by Malay or other coasting craft, who would not proceed to the northward; and the proprietors of Chinese junks, with whom time is no object, and who go down the coast to the Eastern Archipelago with one monsoon, and return with the other, prefer the speculation with their varied cargoes, and the visiting of their countrymen at the different islands. There is no analogy whatever between Hong-Kong and Singapore; the geographical, territorial, and commercial advantages, which have contributed to the prosperity of Singapore, are totally and entirely wanting, and can never be created, at Hong-Kong.

§ Two miserable villages on the coast of Hong-Kong, with a few migratory inhabitants, half pirates and half fishermen, were honoured with the designations of Aberdeen and Stanley, the local government being desirous to propitiate the statesmen who then bore sway. Indeed, no means were spared to create a strong impression in favour of a worthless place.

surveyor-general, in an official report to his relative Sir Henry Pottinger, of twenty-two pages, dated 6th July, 1843, proposed building an entirely new town or "city" in the Woongnichung Valley (which may be aptly called the "Valley of Death"), with a grand canal, and many branch canals, &c.: two ranges of terraces of houses, &c.; courts of law, and various other offices; "acclimatising" barracks; additions to the present government house, for the secretaries and personal staff of the governor, isolated from all other buildings; a space of land to be reclaimed from the sea for a public landing-place, with an esplanade or public walk; a magnificent promenade of four miles, to be made on ground now covered by the sea, which was to be excluded by a sea-wall, at a cost of thirty-five dollars per lineal yard, exclusive of filling in, &c.; a circular road over hills and ravines round the entire island, &c., &c., adapted for carriages, and for moving troops with speed and facility to any part of the island, where they may happen to be required for the protection of the different villages! (these villages, be it remembered, containing nothing but a few hundreds of a thieving piratical population.) I refer to the government archives for full details of these and other most ridiculous projects, involving a heavy expenditure of public money, which none but the wildest theorists, or self-interested persons, could have projected or entertained. On the 17th of December, 1843, the surveyor-general laid before Sir Henry Pottinger the elevation of a building for a government office, &c., with a front of 360 feet in length, by 50 feet in depth, and which would probably cost £30,090 sterling. There was the greatest possible desire to spend a large part of the Chinese indemnity money on this wretched, barren, unhealthy, and useless rock, which the wealth, talent, and energy of all England could never render habitable, or creditable, as a colony, to the British name. In illustration of the mode in which the public money was proposed to be spent, I give the following abstract of a portion of the estimate of public works in Hong-Kong for 1844, and which Sir Henry Pottinger transmitted to England for approval:—

Completion of Queen's-road from West Point to the east side of Woongnichung Valley—dollars, 28,000; ditto to godowns of Jardine and Co., 15,000; new street formation in Victoria, 35,000; sewers in Victoria, 100,000; value of houses to be removed

from Upper Bazaar and other places, 25,000; drainage of Woongnichung Valley, 7,000; bridle-path to Saiwan, 3,000; new church, 35,000; government-house, with suitable offices, &c., 70,000; house for judge, 24,000; house for advocate-general, 20,000; house for queen's solicitor-general, 20,000; house for colonial secretary, 20,000; house for chief magistrate, 20,000; house for treasurer, 18,000; house for land officer, 18,000; house for clerk of colonial council, 16,000; house for colonial surgeon, 16,000; house for chaplain, 16,000; range of buildings for advocate-general, queen's solicitor, &c., 100,000; prison, with house for gaoler, Hong-Kong, 45,000; debtor's gaol, Hong-Kong, 20,000; house of correction, Hong-Kong, 15,000; two police stations, north side of the island, 10,000; two smaller stations, 4,000; police station at Chuc Choo, 8,000; police station at Saiwan, 3,000; police station at Pok-fulum, 3,000; keeping in repair Chuc Choo road, 1,500; contingencies of five per cent., 35,775; consulate at Canton, 45,000; total dollars, 796,275. This is but a small portion of the contemplated expenditure; it does not include the formation of streets and roads in Hong-Kong, which, on account of the mountainous nature of the island, would cost about £100,000 sterling. It does not include barracks, stores, forts, arsenals, dockyards, wharfs, &c.—all projected, and which would cost several millions sterling before they could be completed.

FINANCIAL VIEW.—There is no prospect that Hong-Kong can ever yield revenue adequate to more than a very small civil government. The limited size and rocky nature of the island, the absence of agriculture, manufactures, or commerce, and the fluctuating and predatory character of the population, forbid the hope of an income being raised adequate to the maintenance of the establishment that was at first organised. It is impossible to state precisely the amount of public money which has been spent on this miserable rock; from first to last, civil and military, I cannot estimate it at less than two million sterling: while the annual revenue, from every possible source, including some that are discreditable to a Christian government, was, in 1852, only £21,331. To this sum £12,000 had to be added from the parliamentary grant in aid of the civil disbursements for that year.

It is fallaciously asserted that the island expenditure ought to be defrayed from the tea duties levied in the United Kingdom. It might as well be said that the West India local governments should be paid from the revenue derived from the coffee and sugar imported into the United Kingdom. In both cases, the monies thus obtained are raised from the people of England, who are the buyers and consumers; for the incidence of taxation falls ever heaviest on the last purchaser of the taxed article. The

London merchant adds to the invoice cost of the tea bought at Canton, the freight to England, the insurance, interest of money, warehousing, customs' duty levied in England, and the fair profits of trade on every chest of tea he may sell to the grocer, who then regulates the price at which he can afford to retail the article to his customer, on whom finally falls the whole charges, taxes, and profits to the several parties before he drinks his tea. The revenue derived from the China trade is paid by the people of England; the merchant who carries on the trade does not pay a shilling of it.

As a general principle, colonies that cannot bear the expense at least of their civil government, are not worth maintaining. There does not appear any reason why Hong-Kong should be an exception to this rule. There is not, as has been fancifully supposed, any analogy whatever between Hong-Kong and Gibraltar. Hong-Kong *commands nothing*: a glance at the chart will show that the navigation of the China seas is perfectly independent of this island, by which even the entrance of the Canton river is not controlled. It is not possible by any outlay of money to make it a fortress, being itself commanded by the shore of the neighbouring mainland. But supposing several millions sterling were spent in fortifying Hong-Kong, and half a million annually expended for its garrison, the *cui bono* would constantly recur: no European or American state would think of capturing Hong-Kong, for it would be valueless to them; and if mere glory were sought by the acquisition, they must be aware the fame would be of short continuance, as troops and ships from India, from Australia, and from all our stations eastward of the Cape of Good Hope, would soon recapture the place or starve out the garrison. But Gibraltar is differently circumstanced; it effectually commands the narrow entrance to the Mediterranean, and, together with the fortresses and havens of Malta and Corfu, gives England a preponderating power in that great European sea, which is becoming daily of more and more value in her intercourse with the Anglo-Eastern empire. Moreover, "the Rock" is a valuable commercial entrepôt; at one period £1,000,000 sterling of cotton goods were imported through Gibraltar into Spain.

As a fortress Gibraltar is perfect; it is impregnable. It can boast a revenue fully adequate to its civil government, and

averaging upwards of £30,000 per annum. The military expenses incurred by its powerful garrison saves the constant maintenance of a large fleet in the Mediterranean, preserves the balance of power, and materially conduces to the peace of Europe. The remarks applicable to Gibraltar may be repeated regarding Malta and the Ionian Islands, both of which stations not only pay their whole civil expenditure without one shilling charge on the British exchequer, but also contribute a considerable sum annually towards military defences and protection. Moreover, these places are valuable as trading entrepôts.

Every colony of the British empire provides for its own civil government, with the exception of certain small aids voted annually for the Bahamas, Bermuda, the Falkland Islands, St. Helena, and Heligoland, but these settlements are all intrinsically valuable: the Bahamas, for the geographical position of their harbours; Bermuda, as a strong fortress and dockyard in the Western Atlantic; the Falkland Islands, for their important position and fisheries in the great Southern Ocean near Cape Horn; St. Helena, as a strong fortress and recruiting station for ships doubling the Cape of Good Hope in their voyages to and from India, China, and Australasia, in time of peace; while in the event of war, its possession would be of incalculable value to British merchants, serving in the stead of a large fleet in the Atlantic. Even Heligoland, during the late European war, proved an important trading dépôt for the Elbe and the northern parts of Europe; and the expense is only about £500 a-year. Numerous as are the colonies of the British empire, they are each of specific utility to England;—for their territorial extent as emigration fields to provide employment for a surplus population; for the production of sugar, coffee, corn, cotton, silk, indigo, timber, oil, wool, &c.; as maritime positions or military posts; as trading emporiums or fishing stations. I have in vain sought for one valuable quality in Hong-Kong. There are other good harbours around; and for 200 years we have not found the want of such. I can see no justification for the government expenditure of another shilling on Hong-Kong.

RELIGIOUS AND SOCIAL INFLUENCE.—The benefits derivable from our laws, institutions, and religion, can never be conferred on the Chinese through the colonisation of Hong-Kong. We are there, in fact, almost as

much isolated from China, its people, and supreme government, as if we were located in the Eastern Archipelago. By the adroit policy adopted by the Chinese authorities, a "*cordon sanitaire*," if I may so express it, has been drawn around Hong-Kong; no individual is permitted to proceed there except he be a thief, a pirate, or a spy; no respectable heads of families will venture to fix their residence in Hong-Kong; if they did, their relations still remaining on the mainland, would probably be "squeezed," imprisoned, tortured, or denounced as traitors to the Celestial Empire. Hong-Kong is viewed by the Chinese as a spot where adventurers and reckless characters may make something out of the English; and to which burglars and robbers may resort and live with impunity upon the profits of their villany. I am strongly of opinion, from circumstances that have come to my knowledge, that the mandarins view with indulgence all vagabonds who propose to quit their own country and proceed to the British settlement; that, in fact, direct encouragement is afforded them to do so.

COMMERCE.—The only item of trade noticed in the local returns as constituting the traffic of the settlement in 1853, was 36,499 chests of opium, which is distributed by smugglers along the coast. A large number of vessels annually arrive, call for orders, and proceed to their destination, northwards or otherwise, as they pass through the strait or arm of the sea which separates the island from the mainland. No matter how often these vessels may anchor, even for a few hours, they are entered as arrivals; and hence their numbers were swollen, in 1853, to 1,103, with an aggregate tonnage of 447,000 tons; but up to the present moment no governor has been able to note any sum as indicative of value in regard to the commerce of Hong-Kong. During disturbances at Canton, small quantities of goods were warehoused here, but they would not bear the charges, and those of transshipment, agency, &c. In fact, our trade is fast leaving Canton and being concentrated near the tea and silk districts to the northward—at Shanghai and Foochoofow—for whose protection Hong-Kong is almost as useless as Vancouver's Island on the opposite coast of America.

Were our colonial establishment to be fixed at some island or position to the northward, near the central regions of

China, we should most probably obtain considerable moral influence over an intelligent and respectable class of people, who would communicate their favourable ideas to other and more distant parts of the empire; and by extending a knowledge of our language, pave the way for the introduction of Christianity. An English city at Chusan, for example, surrounded by an extensive agricultural population (the best-disposed and most orderly in China as well as elsewhere), evincing the practical results of the science and skill of Europe, would have a remarkable effect on the Chinese, whose inquisitiveness and imitative powers would soon induce them to copy many things primarily conducive to their physical, and ultimately to their moral and religious improvement.

Political point of View.—Hong-Kong was occupied by the troops and merchants of England in 1840-'41, when her trade was driven from Canton; when the Chinese government was avowedly hostile; and when the Portuguese authorities at Macao had expressed their inability to continue to permit British residence and resort to that port. At this period, the views of Captain Elliott were solely directed towards Canton. Hong-Kong was then deemed the most eligible spot for British occupation, on political and military grounds. And so it proved as long as operations were thus directed to a single point, and we were excluded from China. But after the expedition to the northward, the occupation of Chusan, and ultimately the establishment of peace, and the opening of five ports (including Canton) for free commerce and English residence, protected by a ship of war at each, the political and mercantile value of Hong-Kong entirely ceased. The late war has shown us the vulnerable point of China—namely, the Yang-tze-kiang river, which is aptly denominated by the Chinese, the "Girdle of the Empire." In the event of any future hostilities, our force would be directed at once towards Nankin and other places on the Yang-tze-kiang river, and not against Canton. It would be by interrupting the supplies of grain, and cutting off the trade of the great artery or canal, that war might be, with the least expenditure of blood and treasure, successfully carried through with China. In all points of view, Hong-Kong is worthless. Chusan may yet be ours, and would be valuable from its commanding position, from its comparative salubrity, safe haven, and capability of sup-

plying provisions, both from the resources of the island itself, and from the contiguous coast. A fleet of ships of war and transports might rendezvous at Chusan, and select, at will, the most fitting period of the year for offensive operations. No attack need be apprehended from the Chinese. Ships from Singapore and the southward, can now, by reason of a greater knowledge of the winds and currents, make Chusan, even against the monsoon, in nearly the same time they would occupy in reaching Hong-Kong.

And, finally, the Chinese government, aware of the strength of such a position, would be the less disposed to break the peace, and would rely less implicitly on the strength of the forts in the Canton river.* The Tartar policy is to keep foreigners at the extremity of the empire; but this wary design ought to render Great Britain anxious to establish the depôt of her trade in the Chinese seas near the centre, instead of at its extreme verge.† An English settlement at Chusan would be within three days' sail of Peking.

SECTION VI.—EASTERN ARCHIPELAGO.

LABUAN was ceded to England by the Sultan of Borneo, under the provisions of a treaty dated May 27th, 1847;‡ and the governmental establishment was formed thereon in 1848.

* The possession of Hong-Kong has not induced the government of China to maintain their other engagements unbroken. Lord Palmerston, during a debate in the House of Commons, on 3rd July, 1854, stated, that "ever since the conclusion of the treaty of Nankin, the conduct of the Chinese authorities had been such as would have justified a rupture with that government. They had violated the engagements into which they had entered; and if any desire existed on the part of the British government to proceed against them, abundant cause had existed almost since the termination of the last war. They had refused, on divers pretences, to admit us to parts of Canton to which we ought to have access, avoided their engagements with respect to the Hong, and nullified their stipulations in regard to the tariff. In point of fact, there was hardly a single engagement they had not broken." Mr. Gregson, M.P., an eminent merchant, connected with the China trade, said—"He quite agreed with what had fallen from the noble lord with respect to the conduct of the Chinese authorities, and he believed before long it would be necessary to take more determined measures to compel them to adhere to their treaties."—(*Times*, 4th July, 1854.)

† In my official report on *British relations with China*, printed by permission of her Majesty's government, in two vols. 8vo, the whole of the circumstances connected with the cession of Hong-Kong, the relinquishment of Chusan, and the state of our commerce, position, and prospects in the China seas, are fully set forth.

‡ The preamble of this treaty states that it was entered into with a view "to put an end to piracies which have hitherto obstructed the commerce between her Majesty's subjects and those of the independent princes of the eastern seas." Art. II. grants

The island is situated six miles from Borneo, in 50° 19' N. lat., 115° 10' E. lon. Its form is triangular; the length about eleven miles; the breadth at the south end seven and a-half, and at the northern

British subjects the right of trade and transit through all parts of the sultan's territories. Art. III. authorises them to purchase, rent, occupy, or in any legal way acquire all kinds of property in the said territories, and enjoy full and complete security for themselves and for their property. By Art. V. and VI. internal duties, or any regulations injurious to trade, are prohibited; and the only sea-custom duties levied on British goods or ships, limited to one dollar per registered ton on vessels bearing the British flag; while all export duties are forbidden. By Art. IX., the sultan agrees to co-operate with her Britannic Majesty, by the use of every means in his power, for the suppression of piracy, and for more effectually enabling England to effect this object, and for the carrying on of trade with the dominions of Borneo. The sultan, by Art. X., "confirms the cession already spontaneously made by him, in 1845, of the island of Labuan, with the adjacent islets, and likewise the distance of ten geographical miles to the north and west of Labuan;" adding, "in order to avoid occasions of difference, which might otherwise arise," a distinct and unconditional pledge of not making any similar cession, either of an island, or of any settlement on the mainland, or in any part of his dominions, to any other nation, or to the subjects or citizens thereof, without the consent of her Britannic Majesty." By Art. XI., the sultan "engages to suppress all traffic in slaves, and to prohibit all persons residing within his dominions, or subject to him, from countenancing or taking any share in such trade;" persons or vessels so employed to be treated as if "engaged in a piratical undertaking." By a supplementary article, all British subjects residing within the limits of Borneo, and accused of any crime committed therein, to be tried and sentenced exclusively by the English

extremity not more than a mile: the superficial area is computed to be about thirty square miles. On the first formation of the settlement, the island was an unbroken mass of forest, only a small portion of which has, as yet, been cleared away. The surface of the land is broken into numerous hills, of no great elevation; the highest summit measured not exceeding 500 feet in altitude. The soil is, however, for the most part well adapted for cultivation, and the natural vegetation very luxuriant. Well-grown trees of valuable timber are observable in various places. There are several small streams, and the island is otherwise abundantly supplied with excellent fresh water by digging wells. The harbour is commodious; has a depth of water sufficient for vessels of large burthen, good anchorage, and is completely sheltered from the prevailing monsoons.

During the two first years of the settlement, the inhabitants suffered much from remittent fever, but at present Labuan is pronounced to be as salubrious as most tropical regions. Fever, ague, and rheumatism are the prominent maladies; but these do not prevail to any unusual extent. The island has never been visited by cholera, and is also free from dysentery, so common and dangerous in hot climates. The thermometer ranges from 76° to 96° in the shade, but as a gentle breeze is almost always perceptible, the temperature is not found to be very oppressive. Severe squalls of wind not unfrequently occur, especially during the change of the monsoons; but they are seldom of long duration. The oft-recurring thunder-claps are generally attributed to the influence of the lofty mountain ranges on the mainland of Borneo and in the vicinity of Labuan: the lightning is at times very vivid and dangerous; but these storms, as in other parts of the tropics, purify the atmosphere and reduce the temperature. There is no distinctive wet and dry season, as in India: the greatest quantity of rain falls during the uncertain weather attendant on the changing of the monsoons; October and November may be considered the wettest months. The north-east monsoon blows, with slight annual variations, from

consul-general, or some officer appointed for the purpose; and disputes or differences between British subjects, or which may arise between them and subjects of the sultan, or of any other foreign power, are to be heard and decided by an officer named by her Britannic Majesty, "without any interference, molestation, or hindrance on the part of any au-

thority of Borneo, either before, during, or after litigation." This explicit treaty (which puts to shame the treaty of Nankin, made by Sir Henry Pottinger) bears the seal of the sultan and the signature of Sir James Brooke; is dated Bruné, 27th May, 1847, and signed in the English and in the Malay languages.

The geological formation is probably similar to that of most coal basins. The island is formed of strata of friable sandstone, red and indurated blue clay and coal: the latter exists in abundance, and is found outcropping in several localities. The seam leased to the Eastern Archipelago Company, and on which they have established their works, is situated at Janjong-Kobong, at the northern extremity of Labuan: this section (in common with the other carboniferous strata) has a dip to the north-east of thirty or thirty-five degrees, and an average thickness of ten to twelve feet. The coal is considered of excellent quality: hitherto it has been very little used; but preparations are, it is alleged, in progress for working it on a more extended scale. The government receives from the company a royalty of 2s. 6d. per ton.

THE POPULATION consists of Europeans, Chinese, natives of India, and Malays, and numbered, in 1854, about 1,800, including a military detachment of about 120 sepoy. The classification was: whites—males, 28; females, 2=30: coloured—males, 1,173; females, 120=1,293: aliens and resident strangers, 240. Births for the year, 37; deaths (recorded), 2: the population is fluctuating. The town, situated on the north shore of the harbour, is small, and the dwellings mostly of native construction. The government-house, barracks, and European residences are detached, and situated inland on the neighbouring heights. The Eastern Archipelago Company have a settlement at their works at Janjong-Kobong.

THE GOVERNMENT consists of a lieutenant-governor, secretary, and registrar; police magistrate and treasurer; surveyor, harbour and postmaster, and colonial surgeon.

Laws are enacted by a Legislative Council, composed of the lieutenant-governor and

thority of Borneo, either before, during, or after litigation." This explicit treaty (which puts to shame the treaty of Nankin, made by Sir Henry Pottinger) bears the seal of the sultan and the signature of Sir James Brooke; is dated Bruné, 27th May, 1847, and signed in the English and in the Malay languages.

two other members. There is no Executive Council. There are two courts for the administration of justice—a general court and a police court: this latter acts as a court of requests in cases where the debts are small. The general court is presided over by the lieutenant-governor. The garrison consists of a detachment of about one hundred sepoy, and a party of some twenty artillerymen.

THE REVENUE is chiefly derived from opium and spirit “farms,” and the royalty on coals. The first of these denotes the monopoly of preparing and retailing the noxious drug for smoking. The second item is a duty charged upon the consumption in the island of all wine, spirits, and beer. Both these monopolies are annually sold by auction for the highest monthly rents. The actual revenue for each year, since the formation of the settlement, has been as follows:—

Year.	Local Revenue.	Parl. Grant.
	£	£
1848	59	9,827
1849	750	9,827
1850	1,798	6,914
1851	1,702	5,500
1852	1,691	4,000
1853	2,567	2,300
1854	2,535	1,000
1855	Not ascertained.	None applied for.

Nothing can be said under the head of religion and education: no Christian minister has been sent to the island—no chapel or erection of any kind dedicated to public worship by the British government; and for aught the Malays or Chinese know, the English have neither a creed nor a God.

The trade of Labuan is very small: it is

* To the kindness of the present lieutenant-governor of Labuan (Mr. Scott), I am indebted for most of the facts relating to this settlement.

† Lieutenant-governor Scott, of Labuan, in his report to her Majesty's secretary of state, dated April 7th, 1852, says—“Acts of piracy on the northern coasts of Borneo have been somewhat more frequent than in 1850. This no doubt arises from the impression made by the active measures of Admiral Sir Thomas Cochrane having by lapse of time worn away, and the inherent propensity a Malay has to return to this lawless traffic when unrestrained by personal fear of immediate punishment. Betwixt this and Malludu Bay, the pirates have not proceeded beyond the kidnapping of natives to be sold as slaves, and the plundering of small defenceless prahus. The north-east coast is still a focus of piracy, and remains unsafe for trading boats. In the month of October, the steamer *Pluto* proceeded thither with a view of opening friendly

chiefly carried on by native boats called “prahus”; and recently, owing to the increase of piracy, has been decreasing. The *Eastern Archipelago Company* are said to have two vessels engaged in carrying their coal to Singapore or China. Small vessels ply occasionally betwixt Singapore, Brunei, and Labuan.*

Brunei, the capital of the Sultan of Borneo (a wretched native town, with perhaps 30,000 inhabitants), distant about fifteen miles from the mouth of the river of the same name, and thirty from Labuan, has some traffic; the value thereof (together with that of the British settlement) is thus stated:—1852—Imports, £30,970; exports, £16,564; 1853—imports, £31,820; exports, £22,333; 1854—imports, £23,742; exports, £15,382. By far the largest portion of this traffic is carried on with Brunei. Tonnage inwards, in 1854—3,682 tons.

The leading articles of import for 1854, were—cottons, value £6,604; specie, £6,022; provisions and rice, £2,431; of export—coals, £7,169; sago, £2,182; specie, £2,041; gutta-percha, £957.

It is yet to be proved whether Labuan can ever become a commercial emporium: like Hong-Kong, no person will avow being responsible for the formation of a settlement there. No report appears to have been made to government, advising the acquisition of the island: it is out of the track of vessels passing up or down the China sea, except when beating against the monsoon; and, as regards coal, that is now found to exist near the mouth of the Brunei river, and in various other parts of Borneo. Excepting the expense incurred for a small military detachment, stationed to protect the town from the murderous forays of the pirates of the adjacent mainland,† the

relations with the settlement, and the inhabitants of various rivers known to be rich in articles of trade; but from the limited time at her disposal, and the want of good pilots, little was effected. In the month of September, a small vessel belonging to Singapore was taken by Illanun pirates, at the entrance of Malludu Bay, and the captain and supercargo (both Englishmen), with three of the crew, murdered. The remainder of the crew were compelled to navigate the vessel under the direction of the pirates. Having entered Bengaya, in Labuk Bay, on the north-east coast of Borneo, Serriff Yassin, the chief of the river, having ascertained that the vessel was English, retook her from the pirates, and dispatched a messenger to report the occurrence to this government. I mention this meritorious action of Serriff Yassin, as it seems to offer a proof that a more extended intercourse and cultivation of friendly and commercial relations with the

local revenue defrays the total cost of the civil establishment. A well-armed steamboat, adapted for ascending rivers, is indispensable for the protection of the colony:

north-east coast would effect much in the suppression of that piracy which now ravages those shores, and totally prevents all peaceable traffic. The subsequent destruction of the well-known piratical haunt of Tungku by Captain Massie, of her Majesty's ship *Cleopatra*, who proceeded thither in search of some of the pirates engaged in the taking of the British vessel, and known to be inhabitants of that place, will, it is sincerely to be hoped, have a salutary effect."

* The settlement suffered by the ill success of the trading association before named. The facts of the case are thus set forth by Sir James Brooke, in the *Indication* of his character and proceedings, published by him in London, in 1853:—"The Eastern Archipelago Company was incorporated by the government of Lord John Russell, in 1847, for the avowed purpose of rapidly developing the resources of Labuan, and of taking advantage of the relations which existed between myself and the government of Sarawak, for the establishment of new branches of British commerce with the island of Borneo."

* * * Her Majesty's government entrusted the formation of this company to Mr. Henry Wise, who, besides the royal charter, had obtained a lease of coal in Labuan, and a grant for working coal on the mainland of Borneo. * * *

A legal instrument was executed previously to the formation of the company, and was subsequently incorporated into the deed of settlement, and contained the following clauses:—1st. 'Mr. Wise to be one of the managing directors of the company, irremovable except by a general meeting of the shareholders, for misconduct or incapacity.' 2ndly. 'Mr. Wise to be paid £6,000 within four calendar months after the complete formation of the company.' 3rdly. 'And also, the annual sum of £3,000 every year, during the first ten years of the existence of the said company.' 4thly. 'Mr. Wise to receive one hundred shares (i.e., shares of £100 each) in the company, to be paid up out of the capital of the company.' 5thly. 'Mr. Wise also to receive £2 10s. per cent. on the amount of all dividends, and every bonus to be made by the company, provided that no such per centage should be payable in any case, or at any time, where and when the amount of such dividends and bonus should be less than £7 10s. per cent. of the company's capital. The above monies, shares, and per centage to be considered as in payment of the purchase of Mr. Wise's interests in the charter, and for the grant to Mr. Wise for the said term of twenty years (out of thirty years' lease), as before mentioned, of his interest in the said agreement with the Crown, and of the said right of working coals on the mainland of Borneo.' And further, 'as a remuneration for his services, and the premises already rendered, as before stated, Mr. Wise to receive (over and above the before-mentioned monies, shares, and per centage), as his salary as one of the managing directors, £800 per annum, and £2 10s. per cent. on the amount of all dividends, and of every bonus to be made by the company, such per centage not exceeding in any one year £1,000; so that Mr. Wise's salary in the whole,

If, after a few years more trial, the failure of the experiment should be clearly proved,* the transfer of the British flag to the mainland, will be highly advisable.†

over and above the first-mentioned monies, shares, and per centage, shall not in any one year exceed £1,800.' The fate of the company was decided by this bond, entered into before its commencement; and the gentlemen who had signed it having become directors, obtained no support from the public, and possessed no means to carry out the important objects for the accomplishment of which the charter had been granted. By a cursory inspection of the registered list of shareholders in August, 1851, it will be seen that the undertaking had little reality, excepting upon paper. Out of the 2,000 shares into which the company's capital was to be distributed, Mr. Wise, the irremovable director, held 728 shares; Mr. Lindsay, the chairman (with two relatives), possessed 713 shares; and the remaining directors 274 shares: thus making a total of 1,715 shares in the hands of the direction. I thus, for the first time, became aware of the true cause which had defeated an object I had been striving to advance; and I had long before perceived and represented the danger of coal from other places superseding the coal of Labuan, and thus sealing the ruin of a settlement which deserved a better fate. I was resolved to remedy this state of affairs; I reported the circumstances officially; and with the knowledge of ministers, I took proceedings in the Queen's Bench to vacate the letters patent. One of the conditions of the charter was, that the company should not commence business until three of its directors had given a certificate to the Board of Trade, which certificate they were to endorse on the royal charter, that £100,000 had been subscribed for, and £50,000 at the least paid up of the capital of the company. Whether this condition had been complied with was the main issue in the Queen's Bench; and in June last, the verdict given by the special jury was to the effect that five of the directors had given a false certificate to the Board of Trade, knowing it to be false." The charter of the company was annulled, and Sir James Brooke incurred the bitter and personal hostility of those whose cupidity and malversations he justly exposed. Endeavours are being made to carry out the trading scheme by the company re-formed into a joint-stock association; and under honest and efficient management, there is every reason to desire and anticipate success. The formation of small factories in eligible positions, with a central station under the British flag at Labuan, would probably exercise a most beneficial influence in encouraging the collection of natural products, and leading the people to seek a livelihood by barter, instead of the dangerous and reckless trade of piracy. Free merchants, as in India, would be enabled to obtain a secure footing under the protection of the company, and finally take its place when the obstacles which it was created to encounter had been overcome.

† The failures of Hong-Kong, of Labuan, and of Port Essington in Australia, ought to prevent the British government again sanctioning the formation of distant settlements, unless satisfactory and trustworthy reports be made as to the eligibility of the site in every respect—sanitary, commercial, and political.

SECTION VII.—BORNEO.

BORNEO (excepting Australia), the largest insulated tract of our earth (700 m. long by 300 broad), was brought under the notice of Spanish geographers by Magellan, in 1521. The Portuguese, under Menezes, touched at Borneo in 1526, on their way to the Moluccas. In 1600, Van Noort, the Dutch navigator, anchored in the large bay, near which Bruné, the capital, is situated. In 1685, the first intercourse appears to have taken place with the English, who, in 1702, established themselves at Banjarmasin; and the E. I. Company subsequently formed factories at Borneo Proper and Sukadana. In 1763, the Sultan of Sooloo ceded to the E. I. Company his possessions in the north of Borneo, extending from the Kimanis river to Cape Kaniongan, embracing the districts of Pappal, Maludu, Mangidora, and Tirun. In 1773, a small settlement was formed on Balambangan Island. In 1774, a British Resident was sent to Bruné, who concluded a treaty with the Malay sovereign or sultan, by which the English engaged to defend the capital against the expeditions of the Sooloo and Mindanao pirates; and the sultan, in return, agreed to cede Balambangan and the exclusive trade in the pepper of Bruné. On 24th April, 1775, a band of Sooloo pirates captured the fort of Balambangan, and carried away booty to the value of half a million Spanish dollars; the English fled to Bruné, and maintained their factory there for some years, but ultimately abandoned the place. In 1803, the E. I. Company re-occupied Balambangan; but deriving no advantage therefrom (commerce being impeded by the pirates, who murdered the Europeans of several ships), the settlement was abandoned in 1801. Piracy at length became so general, that Horsburg emphatically warned all navigators of the danger of intercourse with these coasts. Borneo was consequently shunned by Europeans. The Malays established themselves at Bruné about 1460, and at other places, where they founded sultantries, and subdued the aboriginal Dyaks, who became hewers of wood and drawers of water to their Moslem conquerors.

SARAWAK.—Before describing the Bor-

nean settlement thus named, reference must be made to the gentleman who was until recently governor of Labuan and royal commissioner for the coast of Borneo, to whom England is indebted for the position she now occupies in this important part of the Eastern Archipelago. For many years it had seemed desirable to all who understood the value of transmarine possessions, and appreciated the situation, resources, and fertility of Borneo, to acquire a position in, or a connection with, this vast and populous island. The rights acquired by the E. I. Company, though long dormant, might it is true have been revived; but the indifference of the home authorities, together with the artifice and doggedly maintained pretensions of Holland, long frustrated any attempt to extend British operations south of Singapore,—a geographical limit which the Dutch erroneously contended the English were bound by treaty not to pass; the astute policy of the Netherlands being the extension of their flag throughout the immense and valuable regions of which Borneo is the centre, and the complete exclusion of every European nation, but especially England, from all participation in the lucrative traffic in the rich and varied products of these tropical islands, which they anticipated carrying on with the temperate regions of the earth.

Few objects had stronger claims on national consideration; and probably none could be better calculated to rouse and sustain the energy of a great mind, than the prospect of opening up Borneo and its adjacent territories, and thereby affording a field of high promise to British skill and capital, and at the same time of enabling the Christian missionary, whether priest or layman, to introduce the blessings of a civilisation founded on the precepts of the Gospel of peace, among tribes whose whole lives were spent in trying to destroy each other,—into regions which were ravaged by incessant piracy, pillage, and murder,—where the head of a white man was a prize of great value, and the acquisition of a human skull the required proof of manhood,—where, in fine, Satan reigned in unmolested supremacy. It is surprising that so many years should have

elapsed after England became a colonising nation, without any effectual attempt being made for the establishment of a settlement in, or at least of regular communication with, the richly productive Eastern Archipelago. Had the life of Sir Stamford Raffles been longer spared, his patriotic mind would probably have been turned to the subject; or had Java not been restored to Holland by the culpable neglect of Lord Castlereagh, the position of Britain in these regions would probably have been long since potent for good. At length, by an apparently fortuitous, but doubtless divinely ordained series of events, a private gentleman of chivalrous character and innate love of enterprise, achieved the exploit of directing the attention of the British government to these fair isles, and procuring the termination of the Dutch monopoly at a time when it was exercised with peculiar tenacity. Leaving behind a record of his objects and desires, Mr. James Brooke* set forth, in the winter of 1838-'39, in his yacht the *Royalist*, to seek in the far-famed South-Asian isles, that continuous excitement derived from the pursuit of noble objects, which, to some men, is as necessary to existence as the air they breathe. Imbued with the spirit of Raleigh, but with a prudence which that gallant adventurer lacked, Mr. Brooke had patiently waited his time,—had fought with and overcome, by quiet steadfastness of purpose, many obstacles before he reached the country of his hopes and aspirations (August, 1839.) The government of Borneo was at this time almost wholly disorganised, and Mr. Brooke, after mature deliberation, resolved to accept the responsible and arduous office of ruling as rajah a tract of territory in an advantageous position on the coast of Borneo, now fami-

liarily known as Sarawak. Into the particulars of this acquisition it is not necessary here to enter; suffice it to say, that the people who then occupied Sarawak (the independent possession of which had been offered to him by its lawful sovereign), as well as all who have since resorted thither, voluntarily tendered Mr. Brooke a homage as frank and loyal as that given to any European monarch; thus confirming the previous cession by the strongest test which a rightful ruler can desire—the free voice of his subjects. But the Englishman did not forget the interests of his country: he obtained the ratification of an advantageous treaty with Borneo, providing for the abolition of slavery, the suppression of piracy, privilege of safe residence under British laws, freedom of commerce (devoid of custom or transit duties), the cession of the island of Labuan (contiguous to Bruné, the capital of Borneo Proper), and the still more important privilege that, without the consent of England, no territory should be granted to any nation or individual.†

The British government was, despite its inert character, moved by the voice of public opinion in favour of these proceedings; Mr. Brooke was invested with the order of the knighthood of the Bath, appointed her Majesty's consul-general and commissioner in Borneo, and governor of Labuan. Power was given him to call for the assistance of her Majesty's vessels of war in the eastern seas for the suppression of piracy; and the friends of humanity, as well as of commerce, looked hopefully for great results.

The Sarawak territory was offered by Sir James, with the assent of the native authorities, to Great Britain on very advantageous terms, but refused. In its acquisition, and

* Mr. Brooke is the son of the late Thomas Brooke, a well-known civilian in the service of the Hon. E. I. Company. He was born in Bengal, on the 29th April, 1803, and soon after sent to England for education. At an early age he sailed for India as a cadet in the Bengal army, where he held advantageous positions. On the breaking out of the Burmese war, he went, with a staff appointment in the commissariat, to Assam; and, in an action with the enemy, received the thanks of the government for the gallantry which he there displayed. But having been shot through the lungs, he was obliged to return to England for the recovery of his health. After attaining proficiency in several modern languages, he made a tour through France, Switzerland, Italy, and Spain; and, upon the expiry of his furlough, again embarked for India. The ship was wrecked on the Isle of Wight. Owing to this delay, Mr. Brooke's leave of absence had expired when he reached Calcutta or Madras; he therefore relin-

quished the service, and proceeded to China. In 1838, on the death of his father, he succeeded to a handsome fortune, and then published a prospectus in the *Geographical Journal* for 1838, of his intended exploring expedition to the Asiatic Archipelago. He left the Thames 27th October, in his well fitted-up yacht, with nine officers, nine seamen, and two boys. Most of the crew had been with Mr. Brooke three years. "I go," said he, "to awaken the slumbering spirit of philanthropy with regard to these islands. Fortune and life I give freely; and, if I fail in the attempt, I shall not have lived wholly in vain." Quitting England on the 16th December, he made a good passage to Rio Janeiro in two months; reached Singapore the last day of May; left Singapore, 27th July; and anchored on the coast of Borneo 1st August. On the 24th September, 1841, he was declared rajah and governor of Sarawak.

† See Abstract of Treaty at the commencement of "Labuan," Section VI., p. 72.

during his connexion with Borneo, he had expended a large portion (amounting to twenty thousand pounds sterling) of his private property, and he now of necessity looked to the resources of the country of which he had become the acknowledged head, for the means of raising a revenue to carry on its government, and of providing funds for public improvements. A mine of antimony yielded some profit; but he cautiously avoided impeding commerce by high duties, and held forth encouragement to traders to settle at Sarawak; while Christian missionaries, especially those who practised medicine and surgery, and had the character of being devoid of zealotry and sectarianism, were earnestly entreated to aid in the civilisation of the Bornean population. The most painful portion of the duty which devolved on Sir James, in his double character of royal commissioner and rajah, was the adoption of decisive measures for the suppression of the

systematic piracy which, from time immemorial, had ravaged the coasts of the Eastern Archipelago, and by which successive generations were trained to shed human blood,* to carry away the defenceless into slavery, plunder the wealthy, and massacre all who in any way obstructed their murderous career.† So complete was the reign of terror and of crime established in the vicinity of Borneo, that its shores were, as I can bear witness from personal experience, dreaded by the passing mariner, even in large ships with cannon ready primed and loaded at all hours, and boarding-nets on the rigging to prevent a midnight surprise.

It would be superfluous here to narrate in detail the efficient measures taken by Sir James Brooke, in conjunction with Admiral Cochrane and other officers of the royal navy, for the eradication of piracy and its concomitant crimes;‡ for these reference may be made to the interesting works of Captains

* The Malays, as well as the Dyaks, have no respect for human life, but shed blood as if it were water. Omar Ali, the Sultan of Brunéi, who claims jurisdiction over a large part of Borneo, and with whom we entered into a treaty (see p. 72), committed a horrible deed in the early part of the year 1846; the heir-apparent, and the hereditary chief minister (*Muda Hassim*), with all his family, thirteen in number, who were favourable to the English alliance, being murdered in one night.

† Admiral Austin said (16th March, 1852)—“I believe that the whole of that part of the coast which is nominally the territory of the Sultan of Sooloo, is inhabited by a people who are more or less addicted to piracy:” and whenever the sultan “sent people of his own to collect tribute or taxes there, they have been generally murdered.”—(Parl. Papers, No. 35, p. 7: 6th Dec., 1852.) When Captain Massie, H.M. ship *Cleopatra*, attempted to enter the river at the pirate settlement of Toonkoo, to inquire respecting the murder of Mr. Burns, the supercargo of the schooner *Dolphin*, the flag of truce which the English boats carried was fired on; one man was killed, and two others were dangerously wounded.—(Parl. Papers, No. 35: p. 8.) Commissioner Devereux, referring to about forty recorded instances of piratical assaults by the Serebas and Sakarrans, says—“These attacks are various in their character. When assembled in large parties or fleets of boats, it appears that they attacked solitary prows, surprised towns or villages at the dawn of day, or rowed swiftly along a river or the coast, and attacked the cultivators on the shore, or picked up any fishermen they fell in with. In smaller parties they lay in wait in the creeks of the rivers for passers-by, or came over by land through the jungle to the coasts nearest to them in bodies of ten or twenty, and took the heads of any cultivators whom they could surprise in the fields. It is impossible to glance over the list of attacks here recorded, without perceiving that a great loss of life has taken place for many years. Besides the great success mentioned by M. Bondriot in the capture of 400 heads on one expedition, 120, 60, 40, and 30 heads re-

warded their exertions on other occasions within the knowledge of the witnesses examined. In some cases villages or towns have been deserted on account of their ravages; and one witness, Nakoda Mohammed, mentioned a curious fact—that previous to the desertion of the town of Kalukka by its inhabitants, more people died there by the hands of the Serebas and Sakarrans than by any other cause. From the evidence that has been taken, there can be no doubt whatever that these attacks have been frequent and destructive to human life through a long course of years.”—(Report of Commissioners of Inquiry, laid before Parliament by command of her Majesty in 1855; p. 23.)

‡ The *Singapore Free Press*, of July, 1843, contains the following notice of the marauding system carried on in the Eastern Archipelago:—“Piratical habits are so interwoven with the Malay character, that the mere capture of a few prahus will have but a small effect in curing the evil; and whilst a harassing duty is encountered, the result is only to drive the pirates from one cruising-ground to another. On the contrary, a system which, joining conciliation with severity, aims at the correction of the native character, as well as the suppression of piracy, and carries punishment to the doors of the offenders, is the only one which can effectually eradicate an evil almost as disgraceful to the European nations who permit, as to the native states engaged in it. In order to enable the reader to understand this subject, it will be necessary to mention the different descriptions of pirates, their various localities, and the principal scenes of their depredations. First are the Ilanums of Magindaro, and numerous settlements of the same people to the north and north-east of Borneo Proper. These pirates often assemble in fleets of fifteen to twenty prahus, and cruise for two years, or even longer, shifting their ground when food or plunder become scarce. Nearly similar to the Ilanums are the Malukees or Jillolo, and the Balaninis from the vicinity of Sooloo, excepting that the latter are worse provided with fire-arms, and distinguished by using long barbed spears, with which they hook their captives. The cruising-

Keppell and Mundy, R.N., officers whose acknowledged humanity, courage, and intelligence the writer had opportunities of observing in the China seas; to the records of Marryat, Forbes, and others; to the government reports made by naval commanders; and to the decisions of the Court of Admiralty at Singapore. All these authorities concur in attesting the extent and danger of the evil, and the necessity which existed for combating Bornean piracy by the destruction of those found actually engaged therein, by the annihilation of their strongholds, and by striking such terror into all directly or indirectly engaged in the prosecution of this devastating crime, that perceiving its continued perpetration impossible, they might be compelled to turn for subsistence to lawful pursuits. Yet notwithstanding this testimony, while in the energetic prosecution of his mission,*—while engaged in the formation of an ecclesiastical establishment for Borneo,—while augmenting the population beneath his equitable and paternal sway from 1,500 (the number on his arrival) to 15,000, now in the town, with 200,000 surrounding and dwelling beneath the protection of the government of Sarawak,—while creating an import and export trade valued for the year 1854 at half a million sterling, and in rapid process of further development,—and while inspiring the hearts of thousands with gratitude, respect, and even devotion to the English name and character, Sir James Brooke found himself suddenly assailed in parliament, the chief weapon employed being

grounds of these pirates are chiefly the coasts of Borneo and Celebes, and towards the eastward as far as Papua, whence they obtain some of their slaves. The Dyaks of Borneo are a different class of pirates from the foregoing; and if less formidable to the direct trade, are far more destructive of human life. The most powerful of these tribes are the Dyaks of Serebas and Sakarran, inhabiting continuous rivers, situated in the deep bight to the southward and westward of Tanjong-Sirik (or Tanjong-Sisor of charts), on the north-west, east of Borneo. In each of these rivers, mixed with a numerous Dyak population, are from eight to ten hundred Malays, who encourage and accompany the more ignorant natives on predatory and head-hunting excursions. Once or twice each year, from sixty to a hundred warprahus, containing a body of from three to four thousand men, sally forth and carry desolation along the coast, whilst at all seasons small parties steal into the river, and destroy all they meet. From their speed they defy the pursuit of European boats, and from their crafty and sudden mode of attack, they are always dangerous. Numerous examples might be given of their temerity; but it will suffice to mention generally, that 300 Chinese and Malays were

a petition framed at Singapore, alleging that his position as an independent territorial chief, with revenues and commerce under his control, was incompatible with the character of royal commissioner and consul-general. It was stated that the persons destroyed by the naval forces of England were really peaceful people, and not the marauders described. Minor allegations were made, and defamatory letters addressed to her Majesty's secretary of state. Some of these were written by the late Mr. Hume, who moved for their being laid before parliament, and published; thus adding another to the numerous instances in which party politicians have suffered prejudice to obscure their judgment, while general integrity of character has lent weight to unfounded assertions.

It is truly lamentable to find how easily the character of a good man may be traduced and destroyed by the ready credence of those who are too careless to investigate truth. The voluminous papers before me painfully illustrate this fact, as also that of the indisposition which exists on the part of the British government openly to uphold their servants, however privately valued, against the outbreaks of popular clamour.

Instead of supporting Sir James Brooke as a faithful steward of the Crown, whose proceedings had been warmly commended by Lord Palmerston as secretary of state for foreign affairs, and who had been actually urged to persevere in the course pursued, the government having first relieved him—to use official phrasology—of the

cut off in one night, some years ago; and that, within the last eighteen months, a small Malay village was surprised, and about sixty of the inhabitants massacred. In short, these Dyak tribes have long been the terror of the coasts of Borneo, and for many years beyond the control of any government, having three times defeated the attempts of the Sultan of Borneo to reduce them. Besides these different classes of direct pirates, it must be borne in mind that most Malay communities will commit acts of occasional piracy when tempted by the chance of impunity, and that piracy in general is mainly fostered and encouraged by Malay chiefs, who receive the Ilanums and others on friendly terms, and drive a profitable trade with them."

* The feelings which actuated Sir James Brooke in all his proceedings,—from the moment of leaving the shores of England on his expedition to the East,—are fully set forth in his *Private Letters*, edited by J. Templer, Esq., Barrister-at-law, one of the Masters in the Court of Exchequer of Pleas: Bentley, London. Probably no public man ever had his personal affairs more fearlessly unfolded; and few would willingly encounter the scrutiny from which he has come forth triumphant.

governorship of Labuan, directed the governor-general of India to send legal commissioners from India to Singapore, to inquire into the allegations above stated; thus virtually putting Sir James Brooke on his trial as a delinquent accused of mis-

* Mr. Prinsep, the senior commissioner, in his report to the governor-general of India, dated 6th January, 1855, expresses the "surprise felt by himself and his colleague on finding that at the first and second meetings of the 11th and 14th September, no one appeared to support the charges." The editor of a Singapore newspaper, who was very hostile to Sir James Brooke for having publicly denounced him, in 1851, to the governor of Singapore as a person notoriously unfit to hold the judicial office of deputy-sheriff of Singapore, subsequently attempted to sustain the petition; "but," says the commissioner, "of sixteen several witnesses produced in support of the statements therein urged, not one of them deposed to any facts, within his own knowledge, which negatived the practice of piracy by the tribes of Serebas and Sakarran on the coast of Borneo; while three of the witnesses called by Woods deposed to specific piratical acts of those tribes; and another, who deposed only to the result of inquiries and research, rather established than controverted their piratical character. On the other hand, twenty-four of the witnesses subpoenaed by ourselves, together with Mr. J. Bonduat, late Resident and superintendent of the Dutch settlement of Sambas, in Borneo (who happened to pass through Singapore on his way to Europe, and volunteered his evidence), deposed expressly to acts of violence at sea, or on the coasts of Borneo, at various periods within the last twenty years; to which acts I can ascribe no other character than that of piracy, though committed by a race ill-provided with sailing vessels, or such weapons of offence as are employed by Europeans. It was urged that their attacks were nothing more than acts of intertribal hostility, of the existence of which there was indubitable evidence. But this character could scarcely be given to inroads and wholesale slaughter in the Dutch settlements of Sambas and Pontianak, of which, at different periods, there was distinct evidence; nor to the attacks by sea on the Malayan settlements of Oya, Egan, &c., on the north-west coast of Borneo, between Sarawak and Sambas, which had nothing of the character of intertribal warfare: and although the acts of piracy in evidence principally concerned the native inhabitants or traders of the coast of Borneo, yet there was distinct evidence of threats or attempts of piratical attacks on vessels of the subjects of European settlements and their property, which justified the suppression, by European powers, of these tribes as piratical hordes. I think, therefore, that the charges of wrongful and causeless attack and massacre, suggested as matter of inquiry, as the parties to the address would now have it understood, has wholly failed of proof on their part, and has been sufficiently negatived by the evidence to the contrary. We had no evidence, nor do I see any ground of inference, that any acts of savage warfare were perpetrated, either under the orders or with the previous sanction of Sir James Brooke. On the contrary, it appeared by the evidence of the witnesses, that he had not only done his utmost to put down the commission of such atrocities by the subjects of his own raj, but that, on the expedition of

leading her Majesty's ministers by interested misrepresentations.

Lord Dalhousie was unable to spare two judges for the proposed inquiry, and the ungracious task was imposed upon Messrs. Prinsep* and Devereux, members of the Captain Farquhar, he exerted his influence to check them, by the offer of a reward per head for captives brought in alive."—(Report of Commissioners of Inquiry, 1855: p. 3.)

The decision of the Hon. H. B. Devereux (the second commissioner) is fuller, and sustained by more detailed evidence than that of Mr. Prinsep. The following is an abstract of his report to the governor-general on the instruction "to inquire into the relations of Sir James Brooke with and towards the native tribes on the north-west coast of Borneo, with a view to ascertain whether it is necessary that he should be entrusted with a discretion to determine which of those tribes are piratical, or, taking into view the recent operations on the coast, of calling for the aid of her Majesty's naval forces for the punishment of such tribes:"—"In connection with this head of inquiry, it appeared necessary to investigate the character of the Serebas and Sakarran Dyaks. The result of this investigation is shown in detail, in a memorandum which I submit herewith. The attention which this question has excited, has induced me to examine the evidence given before us in detail, and to place the result in a separate paper. It is there shown that those tribes were in the habit of attacking the Sambas and Pontianak coasts, and the Natunas Islands,—territories under the control or influence of the Dutch government, and with which those tribes had no relations of neighbourhood or commerce; that in like manner they used to make attacks on the coasts with whose people Sir James Brooke is more or less connected; that the attacks were made without distinction, on all classes; that they took both the heads of their victims and plunder; that no cause of offence was alleged for their attack; that no other Dyak tribe makes similar attacks; and that, since the punishment inflicted in 1849, the coast has been comparatively secure, and commerce has received a remarkable extension. The other inhabitants of the north-west coast of Borneo do not appear to share in that piratical character, and desire to live at peace. The obstacle to that coast being at peace, and to the full development of its trade, had been, till 1849, the conduct of the Serebas and Sakarran Dyaks. That obstacle was in a great degree removed by the result of the expedition under Captain Farquhar, in 1849, and a considerable increase of trade has since taken place. In pursuance of the object of bridling those tribes, Sir James Brooke has established three forts in their rivers, which prevent the exit of large piratical expeditions. He has also received from the sultan a grant of the five rivers of Samarahan, Sadong, Linga, Kalukka, and Rejang, as a dependency of Borneo, on payment of 1,500 dollars a-year to the sultan. The Serebas and Sakarran rivers, which are included in this grant, had not been under the sultan's authority for a hundred years, and his claim to them might be reckoned of the weakest description. It appears, however, that there is a very general sentiment on that coast that those rivers rightfully belong to the sultan, and the grant by the sultan has given a sort of legitimacy to the supremacy now claimed over them. The practical

Bengal civil service. The commission was opened in due form at Singapore, but no witnesses appeared to substantiate the allegations of needless bloodshedding brought against Sir James; on the contrary, the fullest testimony of their falsity offered itself object of this supremacy is to wean the Serebas and Sakarran tribes from their piratical habits, and to induce them to adopt peaceful and commercial pursuits. This has been to some degree successful. It does not, however, appear that her Majesty's naval forces are in any way bound to support that supremacy. Whether it is necessary that Sir James Brooke should be entrusted with a discretion to determine which tribes are piratical, and to call for the aid of her Majesty's naval forces for their punishment, must depend on the position, if any, which Sir James Brooke may hold in her Majesty's service. From the whole course of the evidence which has been taken in connection with this subject, whether as regards the atrocities formerly committed by the Serebas and Sakarran Dyaks, or the injury to native trade caused by Illanum and Bolanine pirates, it appears most desirable that there should be an authority empowered to call for the aid of her Majesty's naval forces for the suppression of piracy. The treaty of Borneo engages Great Britain to suppress piracy on the north-west coast of Borneo; and unless the charge of doing so is committed to some naval officer or some civil authority, whether her Majesty's commissioner or some other British officer, who is empowered to call for the aid of the requisite naval forces in the usual manner, that object, so important to the trade which is now springing up, and to the comparative tranquillity which has been recently introduced, can scarcely be attained. I have thus completed my report on the four heads of inquiry which are stated in the commission, and I should now conclude it, had it not seemed advisable that I should make some remarks concerning the expedition of Captain Farquhar, in 1849, against the Serebas and Sakarran Dyaks. I am led to do this from perceiving that my colleague, Mr. Prinsep, has reported his opinion on the subject, and from thinking it, therefore, desirable to place on record the degree in which my opinion coincides with his. I have already declared my opinion that the Serebas and Sakarran Dyaks were piratical tribes; it was therefore both just and expedient, and in conformity with the obligations of treaty, that punishment should be inflicted on them, with a view to the repression of their atrocious outrages. The exact measure of punishment which should have been inflicted, is a question which it does not belong to me to decide; but I may say that it was essential that the thing should be done, and done effectually. So far as regards the loss of life inflicted on them, there does not appear any reasonable ground for sympathy with a race of indiscriminate murderers. The actual loss of life on their part, caused by the night action off the Kalukka, in July, 1849, is thus described by Mr. St. John, who has had considerable facilities for forming a correct opinion on a subject which confessedly admits of no exact calculation:—'By native report there were 300 killed, and the rest, to the number of about 500 more, died in the woods, or after reaching home. The reason why so many died was, that some of the Dyaks came from Sakarran, and they had to walk a very great distance back with only what food they could pick up in the jungle. I know of two villages,

spontaneously at every turn of the case; and unexceptionable evidence of the recklessly piratical character of the Serebas and Sakarran tribes (the main point in dispute), was voluntarily supplied by a Dutch official of rank, who had long served on the coast of one long house each, to which only three or four returned out of a very great many (Banga) that went.' Subsequently to this night action the expedition proceeded up the river to the Serebas country, for the purpose, principally, as I understand, of making more permanent the effects of the night action, by showing that even their hitherto inaccessible country could be penetrated by British forces. I do not trace that any very great loss of life was inflicted on this expedition. The Serebas 'made no stand' (Captain Farquhar's Report to Sir F. Colelejer, dated 25th August, 1849), and there was no opportunity for inflicting it. A large body of Malays and Dyaks accompanied the expedition up the river. Sir James Brooke stated (Answer 33), that 'without the Dyak allies the English could not have got through the country.' Whether it was expedient to enter the country, is a question which, like that of the amount of punishment to be inflicted, it does not belong to me to judge; but having decided to go, I presume, from Sir James Brooke's statement, that it was necessary to take the Dyak allies in company. It has been asserted that those Dyak allies committed atrocities on that expedition. As, unfortunately, even in a large European force, there is usually a proportion of men who will commit atrocities when out of sight of their officers, it is by no means improbable that, when out of sight of their English leaders, the allied Dyaks acted in the manner which may be expected of barbarians. This opinion is, however, purely conjectural. The inquiry was not directed towards this subject, and no evidence was laid before the commissioners concerning it, except that contained in the latter part of the statements of the Datto Patiogi, and of Messrs. St. John and C. Grant, regarding a conflict between a Sarawak spy-boat and a small Serebas boat, and the slaughter of the crew of the latter—a proceeding which appears to be the obvious result of making war, and rendered, as it were, indispensable by the Serebas habit of not surrendering as prisoners. It was stated by Mr. St. John, that 'no Serebas Dyak fighting man can be taken alive. They never give quarter, and never expect it.' In confirmation of Mr. St. John's statement I may mention that, in the whole course of the inquiry, I heard of but four instances of Serebas and Sakarran Dyaks being taken alive. One was the case of a war-boat full of them which stranded on one of the Natuna islands, as mentioned by the witness Orang Kayan Dana Makota. The three others were—one man stunned by blows of oars; a second surprised in a house belonging to another tribe; and a third picked up from a wreck or deserted boat at sea. In conflicts with such men, atrocities, in the ordinary sense of the term, are not easily committed, except in the possible case of women and children being slaughtered. I have, &c.,
(Signed) "H. B. DEVEREUX."

"*Nota*.—Captain Farquhar says, in his report, that a considerable number of the enemy were killed; but it appears to have been stated as considerable only in comparison with the very trifling loss of the invaders. No numbers are mentioned, as in the case of the night action."

of Borneo, and, as may be supposed, had no favourable leaning towards the British consul-general, by whose efforts the monopoly long enjoyed by the Hague had been subverted.

The commissioners, after a protracted inquiry, made separate reports, both concurring in the complete and honourable acquittal of Sir James from all the charges by which his character had been impugned; but there they stopped, apparently deeming it no part of their duty to take a comprehensive view of British relations with the Eastern Archipelago, and show the manner in which these had been established by the calumniated object of the investigation. Viewing the commission in its fairest light, it is satisfactory as evidence of what the students of colonial history will too often find reason to doubt—namely, that the British government is disposed to consider the destruction of human life for any cause as always to be deplored, and where it occurs, regards the fullest investigation as to its necessity, an imperative duty. But this reasoning affords no excuse for the conduct of those who, being well acquainted with the whole circumstances of the case, strove to procure the downfall of a man whose fearless truth made foes, and who disdained to use the shield of worldly prudence

* The following extract of a letter from the venerated Bishop of Calcutta (Wilson), dated 10th July, 1841, testifies to the extraordinary efforts made by Rajah Brooke for the extension of Christian civilisation in Borneo:—"I have spent some days at Sarawak; I have consecrated the church according to the request of the diocesan, the Lord Bishop of London. I have inspected the state of the infant mission, and conferred fully with the indefatigable and zealous chaplain and missionary [now Bishop McDougall]: I have conversed also with the gentry (natives), and have read the several works published on the events which have occurred in the last few years. It is my full persuasion that there is no mission on the face of the earth to be compared with that of Borneo; it has been thrown open to Christian enterprise almost by miracle. One of the darkest recesses of heathen ignorance, and desolation, and cruelty,—where piracy and murder, and conflagration and head-hunting stalked abroad in open day, and the aboriginal inhabitants were in the sure way of being exterminated utterly:—that recess is now, so to speak, like the paradise of God. Deliverance has been proclaimed, security of person and property, equal rights, an enlightened and paternal distribution of justice, the arts of life, an extending commerce, are already established at Sarawak, and spreading along the whole western coast of Borneo. The Chinese sea is free from marauders, and all Europe and America will pursue their maritime occupations from Singapore to Labuan (700 miles): the Christian mission has begun to sanctify and adorn all these secular blessings. Two things quite

against their unworthy weapons. To compass the destruction of the founder of Christian civilisation in Borneo,* was an end to be sought by any and every means;—to sap the foundations of his government, which rested so much on opinion, was an object to be attained at the cost of reviving piracy, and the risk of causing the massacre of every Englishman and Englishwoman in or near the island. What else could be expected than that the robber hordes, believing in the disgrace and loss of power of their great foe, should reissue from their haunts again to try their hands at the old pursuit? When the appointment of the commission of inquiry became known, the pirates declared that the dreaded "fire-ships" were no longer to be suffered to prevent or punish their atrocities; the Lanouns and Balinini tribes came out of their strongholds, destroyed the incipient but increasing native trade, murdered the traders, and at length slew six of the peaceable inhabitants of Sarawak, while quietly pursuing their avocations near the mouth of the river. Happily the government of Sir James Brooke at Sarawak had struck deep root in the hearts of the people, who clung to the rajah all the more fervently because of the indignities to which he was to be subjected for their sake. So unexampled favour the design—1st. Englishmen have become first known to the oppressed Dyaks by a single English gentleman of benevolence, talent, and singular wisdom and tact of government, who has received as a token of gratitude from the native princes a tract of land (about 70 miles by 50) as his own territory. To the benefit of the inhabitants of it, this gentleman, who is now recognised as the Rajah of Sarawak, is devoting his time, his fortune, his zeal, his health, his body and soul. * * * In truth, when I stood on the hill on which the church is erected, and viewed the subjacent town stretched on the river's bank, and the mission-house and school on the college hill which commands the opposite shore, I could not but break out into thanksgiving to the God of all grace for His wonderful works. * * * Will England, then, fail to support the work thus prosperously begun? Impossible! It is not in the manners of our Christian Britain to forget that she was herself, 1,400 years ago, in as low a state of barbarism as the Dyaks—infested with European pirates, as they with Asiatic now. No,—she is well aware that what the gospel has done for England, it *can do* for Borneo!" This is the highest testimony Sir J. Brooke could receive. Another well-known authority (Colonel Jacob, of the Bombay artillery) recently visited Sarawak, to form a judgment on the spot; and, in a lecture delivered before a public society in India, declared in the most emphatic manner his admiration of the conduct of Rajah Brooke, and surprise at the amount of good already achieved in the teeth of obstacles and discouragements.

far from his moral power having abated, it daily increased; and when he summoned them to rally round the flag under which they had found, for the first time, security for life and property, between seven and eight thousand men instantly responded to the call. Never did highland clan more eagerly devote themselves to the will of their chief than these poor Dyaks, who, left to their own resources, would have crouched like beaten hounds while miscreant bands seized their young women for the gratification of brutal lust, massacred the aged in cold blood, and carried the young and able-bodied into hopeless slavery. It was resolved to strike terror into the pirates by assaulting them in their strongholds, 150 miles from the coast, whither they were wont to retire with their booty and captives; and, if possible, effect inland an expulsion similar to that which Captain Farquhar, R.N., had so well done on the coast in 1849. By masterly strategy, and the simultaneous action of several assailing bodies, and by inducing the Malays at Serebas and other places to remain neutral, the object was accomplished, after twenty-five days of great hardship and danger. The particulars of this gallant proceeding, which immediately preceded the opening of the commission of inquiry, are thus narrated by an eye-witness:—

“The mountain of Sadok stands in the midst of the track between Sakarran, Serebas Limanok, and Kajoulo, and on a spur of this mountain, called Bukit Lang, or Kites-hill, the great malecontent Rentab had taken his stand. Sir James Brooke assembled his force on the Sakarran river, and dispatched the Datu Tumangong of Sarawak, with six large prahus, to Boling (the Malay town), to keep steadfast the Malays of Serebas and the Dyaks of Paddy and Baku in that river, who had promised neutrality; at the same time he dispatched Mr. Steel up the Kajoulo with a force of 1,500 men to make such a diversion as would prevent the Kajoulo's reinforcing Rentab; and then, with the main body of 6,000 men, he moved up the Sakarran river to a place called Entabban. This movement was not effected without difficulty, owing to the size of the prahus and the rapids and shoals of the river. Here he threw up a stockade, 400 yards in length, to protect the large boats, of which, with 1,000 men as a reserve, he took the charge in person, and directed his nephew, Mr. Brooke, to assume the conduct of the further

advance and the assault of Bukit Lang. Mr. Brooke started on the morning of the 13th of August with 5,000 men under his command, embarked in smaller boats, the different detachments headed by four other Englishmen,—Mr. Charles Grant, Mr. Breckton, Mr. Charles Johnson, and Mr. Cruickshank. For seven days they struggled against the difficulties of the ascent. They had to move up the river for fifty miles with the hostile Serebas Dyaks on their flank, the water shoal, with occasional rapids, obstructed by trees felled across—the banks often high, the country hilly and abrupt, and in many places densely wooded; they had to drag the boats over the slingly bed of the river, making only about eight miles a-day; the crews in the water from seven a.m. to three p.m., under a broiling tropical sun, and at night kept on the alert by small detachments of the enemy. On the eighth morning, having first formed an intrenchment to defend the boats, Mr. Brooke advanced to the attack of Bukit Lang, which, strong by nature, had been rendered still stronger by art. At the top of a steep hill 500 feet high were three strong enclosures of fourteen feet in height, proof against grape or musketry, surrounding the village on the summit; the houses were likewise stockaded; and, so well were the details arranged, that every preparation had been made, by ladders placed over the roofs, to extinguish fire. The ‘Kite’s-nest’ was only to be approached by two narrow pathways, four feet broad, falling away steep on either side. These paths were stuck full of ranjows and spikes, each defended by a fort, and with a gun and muskets pointed along it, and at fifteen yards from the gun’s muzzle a ditch had been cut ten feet broad and five feet in depth, filled with all sorts of obstructive and destructive devices. Mr. Brooke moved up his party from their intrenched camp at daylight, and, after surmounting numerous difficulties, he succeeded in getting a single gun in position at eleven o’clock a.m., and opened fire at 400 yards; a smaller party likewise, with another gun, acted as a diversion on the right-hand path. The garrison, which consisted of 800 men, received the besiegers with shouts; the surrounding hills were covered with numerous parties of the enemy, awaiting any failure, and one of the taunts they used was that they would get at the boats and cut off the retreat. The enemy was in the highest spirits; the attacking party not less so, though placed in a

critical position; and thus the action commenced.

"From hill to hill the 4-pounder brass gun was hauled or lifted, and the last position was only fifty yards from the fort. For four hours a brisk fire was kept up from the fort; at four P.M. it gradually began to slacken. The musketry of the besiegers had told upon every corner and crevice, and, the breach being made, Mr. Brooke ordered the final charge as the sun sunk beneath the horizon, at six o'clock. The first man over the ditch was the Panglima (chief warrior); others followed, and in five minutes the fort was taken. About twenty of the pirates fell dead in the assault, and the remainder of the garrison escaped by a ladder-like path to the river below, carrying off their chief, Rentab, severely wounded. Mr. Brooke's force occupied the fort that night. For two days they scoured the surrounding country, and completed their victory. The pirates lost in killed and wounded at least a hundred men. The loss on Mr. Brooke's side consisted of three men killed; ten seriously, and from twenty to thirty slightly wounded.

"On the 24th of August, after destroying the fortress and razing the works, they returned to Sir James Brooke, at Entabban, in triumph. At the other points, also, the expedition had been entirely successful. The Serebas Malays were held firm to their neutrality by the Datu, and, on hearing of the fall of Bukit Lang, joined at once with the successful party; and Mr. Steep's detachment, finding, as had been anticipated, the Kajoulo people had moved up to support Rentab, ravaged their country, and taught them the sharp lesson of feeling what they had so often inflicted on others. On the 25th of August Sir James Brooke returned to Sarawak. Its effect is scarcely to be calculated, as it has demonstrated that the refractory and evil-disposed are not safe in the interior of their own fastnesses, and that their strongest position, fortified with great care and toil, availed them nothing. It will be sure to create an immense sensation along the coast.

* In the commissioners' report, pp. 26, 27, the growing commerce with Borneo is thus stated by the Hon. H. B. Devereux:—"The Sarawak trade is now about eight times as great as it was in 1819, the year of Captain Farquhar's attack. In 1817, the exports from Sarawak were, in round numbers, worth 50,000 dollars. He calculated them himself last year, from the trade returns, at 400,000 dollars, exclusive of the gold exported. The imports were about equal with the exports, and increase in the same period in a like proportion. The trade of the whole coast, he adds, has increased, and the dif-

The Lanoons and Balinini will soon hear of it, and will know that, unless they leave off their piratical habits, their turn will come next. It is another sledge-hammer blow at the system of piracy, and will be repeated without fail until the peaceful and well-disposed inhabitants may pursue their avocations without danger.

"It remains only to notice what has occurred subsequently. Sir James Brooke had scarcely returned to Sarawak when her Majesty's ship *Lily* came in with the intelligence that the commissioners had arrived at Singapore, and her commander, Captain Saunderson, was directed to offer him a passage across. Before, however, Sir James Brooke left Sarawak, he called all the chief people together, and stated publicly that the commission had arrived, that he was accused of great crimes, and of oppression and misgovernment, that he would endeavour to induce the commission to visit Sarawak, when any person who had aught to urge against him might speak for themselves. He told them publicly that then was the time, if he had wronged any man, to seek redress, and that, whatever might become of him, they should maintain their independence and support the government of their choice."

It is to be hoped that reparation may speedily be made, and that Sir James may be reinstated in the position for which, above all other men, he has shown himself adapted. But if, unhappily, this should not be the case, and Sarawak and its rajah remain not only unrecognised, but treated with contumelious neglect,—if not even a gun-boat bearing the flag of England be left on the coast for the protection of Labuan, and for carrying out the treaty contracted by the Queen with the Sultan of Borneo (by the neglect of which we are forfeiting the rights thereby guaranteed),—then, indeed, not only "a great discouragement," but positive injury is offered to British commerce,* and to the extension of Christian civilisation.

Such treatment would contrast strangely

ference is strongly marked; and a very great increase in all the rivers. In the Serebas river there was no trade in 1819, and there is now a large trade. Sir James Brooke said that in 1839, 1810, and 1811, trade had totally ceased in Sarawak (a consequence, no doubt, of the rebellion then going on); not a single prow or trading vessel of any sort left the place for Singapore. Sarawak, when he took charge of the government, had a Malay population of about 2,000 souls; it has now 15,000. Samarahan had about 200 Malay inhabitants; it has now 10,000—an increase stated to arise from the security derived

with the sympathising appreciation which has been spontaneously tendered both from France and the United States. I have a document before me from the former state, which, with characteristic vivacity and courtesy, testifies the admiration of the French people for Sir James Brooke, and assures him that he may reckon on their support to carry out his glorious enterprise; while the latter nation has officially expressed its readiness not only to recognise the flag of Sarawak, but to admit that raj to all the advantages of the most favoured government, on the basis of reciprocal advantage—a concession which has been heretofore withheld on behalf of England.

An earnest spirit, influenced not by generous impulse only, but acting habitually from a deep-rooted sense of duty, is little likely to be turned aside from its self-chosen path by internal obstacles or external opposition. Therefore there is reason to trust that Sir James Brooke will persevere in the great work so well begun; that he will bide his time (being still in the prime of

life), and await that justice which sooner or later will be awarded by his sovereign, who (whatever be the feelings and opinions of the royal mind) acts solely through the advice of responsible ministers, who, practically, are named by only one house of parliament. Under any circumstances the rajah is sure of the favourable opinion, cordial support, and anxious sympathy of a large body of the good and the wise, scattered throughout the length and breadth of his native land. Should he want funds, they will aid him, as they are actually doing, by founding a bishopric, sending out missionaries, and building churches wherever he may advise; and those who are thus co-operating, will doubtless be ready, when the time or emergency arises, to urge effectually (should he, on public grounds, be willing to accept it) his official reinstatement as a servant of the Crown—an act of justice highly desirable as such, and equally advisable as regards the national interests, which Sir James, if supported, can, under Providence, materially forward.*

from the neighbourhood of Sarawak. The advance of trade which has been thus indicated, is also shown in the returns of the Borneo trade with Singapore. In this, it is true, the traffic with the Dutch possessions also is included, and it is probable that they have shared in the advantages, whatever they may be, which have given rise to this improved state of things. I annex a statement, which was made out at my request in the government office at Singapore, by which it will be seen that the import trade of Singapore with Borneo has increased from 5,86,415 rupees in 1842-'43, to 12,70,346 rupees in 1852-'53; while the export trade has risen from 6,66,049 to 12,04,231 rupees. I subsequently ascertained, that in 1841 the imports were 2,51,909 rupees, and the exports 3,18,948 rupees. The conclusions I have arrived at are, that the Serebas and Sakarran Dyaks, by their frequent piratical and murderous expeditions, kept the coast within their range in alarm, and prevented the development of a prosperous commerce; that the punishment inflicted by the *Nemesis* expedition in July, 1849, was followed by a nearly total cessation of their attacks by sea—a result materially aided by the establishment, by Sir James Brooke, of three forts in commanding positions in their rivers, which guard the principal passages by which it was formerly usual for the great fleets of their boats to leave their country. The result of these measures has been the discontinuance of large expeditions, and in fact of all expeditions by sea, except those of a few of the bolder and more venturesome spirits, who get to sea with a few war-boats through channels formerly not much in use. The earlier period after July, 1849, was marked by the resort of the Serebas and Sakarran Dyaks themselves to Sarawak, with their war-boats converted to the use of trading vessels. This appears to have now been discontinued, and their trade with Sarawak is carried on by other and probably more convenient means, but there is a large trade. Their

once united society is now divided. The Malays, who live nearer the sea, and formerly accompanied them on their expeditions, have taken fully to peaceful and commercial pursuits, for which their situation gives them advantages. The Dyaks nearest to the sea have done the same. Those farthest from the sea, and most inaccessible to a hostile force, and to the emotions its presence would cause, still desire to keep up the old practice of head-hunting and piracy. It is still uncertain to which side the victory will ultimately belong. The authority of the Sultan of Borneo and Sir James Brooke is now acknowledged within their rivers, and it seems probable that eventually the more peaceful party will prevail." The commerce in the seas around Borneo is at the present moment largely increasing, and may be almost indefinitely augmented. The value of the traffic may be appreciated from the fact, that Holland has been enabled to maintain her position among European nations chiefly by her Eastern Archipelago trade.

* Since the text was written, a letter from the Earl of Clarendon (her Majesty's secretary of state for foreign affairs) to the Right Hon. A. Vernon Smith, president of the India Board, has been made public (see *Times*, London, 14th December, 1855.) This despatch contains a complete confirmation of the opinions above expressed. The following passages refer to the main points at issue:—"Her Majesty's government learn with much satisfaction from these reports (of the Commissioners of Inquiry) that, as there can be no doubt of the piratical habits of the Serebas and Sakarran tribes, the charge which has been made against Sir James Brooke, of having wantonly and without cause attacked these tribes, has fallen completely to the ground. They also learn with satisfaction that the commissioners were of opinion that Sir James Brooke had not traded in the produce of the territory under his control in any manner incompatible with his duties as consul-general and commissioner. * * * The inquiry, which

The following statement regarding the present condition of Sarawak, the chief facts of which are furnished by an eye-witness, forms a satisfactory conclusion to the preceding notice:—Tranquillity reigns throughout. Crime is infrequent; and a population (including Samarahan) of not less than 60,000 individuals, is ruled by a dozen European and twenty-five native policemen. The laws are mild, but promptly and impartially administered; and the hitherto lawless Malay,—the wild untutored Dyak, and the crafty Chinese trader, now meet in the court of justice, and appeal with confidence to its tribunal.

Kuchin, the capital, or rather that portion of it inhabited by the Chinese, who number about 1,500, has been within the last two years entirely rebuilt; handsome tiled houses have taken the place of the leaf huts, and long streets of well-furnished shops attest the prosperity of the place. In the evening may be seen crowding the thoroughfares the most motley and picturesque population in the world;—the stately Arab merchant, with his long robes of scarlet or white; the wild Dyak from Serebas or Sakarran, bringing his pigs and rice to market; the Chinaman, and the noisy cunning “Kling” pedlars of India. It is remarkable that this same Kuchin, which but fifteen years ago was a small village, now takes rank as by far the finest town in the island of Borneo. It possesses a church, two mosques, a court-house, an excellent market, and several manufactories. The principal exports of Sarawak are antimony ore, sago, gutta-percha, rattans, edible birds’ nests, wax, &c., &c. The exports and imports may be roughly stated at about one million of Spanish dollars in amount. Valuable seams of coal have been recently discovered at Si Munjan, on the Sadong river, and cannot fail to become useful for the promotion of trade. Specimens of iron ore are also on their way home. In fact, everything tends to show that the resources

has ended in the complete exculpation of Sir James Brooke from the charges made against him, has, at the same time, brought to light abundant evidence of the beneficial results of his administration of the affairs of Sarawak, which are exhibited by the establishment of confidence and the increase of trade, and are such as to deserve the approbation of her Majesty’s government. As it may be presumed that the

of Sarawak, rightly developed, must render the place of considerable importance.

Bishop McDougal resides at Kuchin, as also an assistant chaplain and schoolmaster; attached to the mission is a training school of Chinese and Malay boys, whose progress in education has been most satisfactory. The system pursued is to separate them as much as possible from the evil influence of their own countrymen,—to give them a good practical Christian education, in which it is hoped they will be so guarded as to withstand the temptation to return to the habits of their fathers when emancipated from school. The convents at Kuchin are chiefly Chinese; and little doubt is entertained of large numbers joining the congregations. These Chinese emigrants, having nothing worthy the name of a religion of their own, attend the lectures of the missionaries in great numbers: they listen with attention, curiosity, and respect; and these are hopeful signs. Two branch missions have been established,—one at Linga, among the Balow tribe of Dyaks, under Mr. Chambers, whose judicious kindness has endeared him to the Dyaks, who are being baptized in considerable numbers, and promise soon to fill the little mission church recently erected; the other under Mr. Gomes, in the Lundee river. This gentleman, a native of Ceylon, and educated in Calcutta, has succeeded in inducing the Dyak children to attend his school, and he pronounces them the quickest learners of all the races he has met with. Altogether, the existing state of things proves that the Bishop of Calcutta, in the letter already largely quoted from,* was justified in pronouncing the Borneo mission the most promising on the face of the earth; and, with the Divine blessing, the present generation may yet hope to prove practically the truth of the venerable prelate’s emphatic declaration—“That what the gospel has done for England, it can do for Borneo.”

fact of the long-pending inquiry which has taken place can hardly have failed to produce among native communities an impression unfavourable to Sir James Brooke, it is desirable that in order to remove such impression all fit means should be taken to cause the result of the inquiry to be fully and extensively known.”—(Foreign Office, 6th Aug., 1855.)

* See Note to page 82.

MEDITERRANEAN POSSESSIONS.

SECTION VIII.—GIBRALTAR.

THE promontory or peninsula of Gibraltar, three miles long and seven in circumference, forms the south-west angle of the continent of Europe,* and is situated in the Spanish province of Andalusia. The southern extremity lies in $36^{\circ} 2' N.$ lat., and $5^{\circ} 15' W.$ long.

The earliest accounts of this singular rock are lost in obscurity, or veiled in the fictions of mythology. The Greeks gave, it is thought, the term *CALPE*, *Καλπη* (*Urna*) to the mountain, by reason of its projecting into the sea from the mainland, like a bucket; and Calpe, together with the neighbouring Mons Abyla, on the opposite African coast, received the appellation of the "Pillars" of Hercules,—either in memory of certain pillars supposed to have been erected somewhere in the neighbourhood of the Straits, or because, according to popular tradition, Calpe and Abyla owed their formation to an exertion of the supernatural strength of the Sampson of fable.

Whether Phœnician navigators, Carthaginian merchants, or Roman conquerors ever settled on "the Rock," is not on record; but it seems probable that the natural strength of the position was first noticed in the beginning of the eighth century, when the Saracens or Moors invaded and made themselves masters of Spain. The particulars of this extraordinary subjugation would be out of place in a work of this nature; suffice it to say, that Tarif *ebn Zarea*, a general under the Moorish sovereign or Caliph *Al Walid*, landed A.D. 712, on the sandy isthmus between Mons Calpe and the continent, with an army of 12,000 men, for the conquest of Spain, and gave orders for the erection of a strong castle on the face of the mountain, for the purpose of keeping up his communication with Africa: the remains of this work yet exist, though its completion bears the date A.D. 725. From this period Mons Calpe took the name of *Gibel Tarif* (hence Gibraltar), or Mountain of Tarif, in compliment to the victorious Saracen general, who, leaving a garrison there, marched into the

country, surprised Hæraclæa and other towns, and by a decisive victory over the raw levies of the profligate Roderic, king of the Goths (gained near Xeres, in Andalusia), subverted a monarchy which had then existed 300 years.

During the Moorish occupation of the Spanish territory, Gibraltar increased in importance, but probably did not attain any considerable strength, as it was captured from the Moors by a small detachment of troops under Ferdinand, King of Castile, in the beginning of the fourteenth century. The fortress remained in the possession of the Spaniards until A.D. 1333, when Abomelique, son to the Emperor of Fez, who had been dispatched to the assistance of the Moorish king of Granada, laid siege to Gibraltar, which after five months' attack surrendered to the Africans.

Alonzo XI., an ambitious and warlike prince, then on the throne of Castile, attempted the recapture of this important station five days after its reoccupation by the Moors; but Mahomet, King of Granada, joining Abomelique's forces, hemmed in the assailants and compelled them to raise the siege. In the beginning of 1349, Alonzo again attempted the conquest of Gibraltar, but his army was forced to retire on the death of the Castilian monarch, 24th March 1350. Until A.D. 1410, the descendants of Abomelique continued in quiet possession of Gibraltar, when Jusaf III., King of Granada, availing himself of intestine feuds in the garrison, took possession thereof; but the Granadian Alcáide (or governor) was driven out by a revolt of the people in the ensuing year, and the Emperor of Morocco being solicited by the inhabitants to take the fortress under his protection, sent his brother Sayd to their relief, with 1,000 horse and 2,000 foot. The King of Granada resolved, however, to repossess himself of Gibraltar, and appeared before it in 1411, with a large fleet and army, and the Morocco troops, after suffering great hardships, were obliged to submit to the overwhelming strength of their enemy.

In 1435, Henry de Guzman, Count de Niebla, lost his life in an attack on Gibraltar. The son of this unfortunate nobleman (John de Guzman, Duke of Medina Sidonia) was,

* Europa Point, the extremity of Gibraltar, is sometimes erroneously termed the southernmost part of Europe; but Cabrita is two, and Tarifa five miles further to the southward.

however, more successful in 1462, being instrumental in the final capture of Gibraltar from the Moors, who had held it, with few interruptions, for 748 years. Henry IV. of Castile and Leon was so rejoiced at the conquest, that he added Gibraltar to his royal titles,* and gave it for arms *Gules*—a castle with a key pendent to the gate, *or*, (alluding to its being the key to the Mediterranean); which heraldic distinction has been continued down to the present day.

In 1502, during the reign of Ferdinand and Isabella, Gibraltar was annexed to the Crown of Spain, instead of remaining under the control of the Duke of Medina Sidonia; but its strength could not have been very great, as we find that, in 1510, it was surprised and pillaged by Piali Hamet, one of Barbarossa's captains. During the reign, however, of Charles V., the fortifications were modernised; and the additions made by Daniel Spekel, the imperial engineer, were thought to render it impregnable.

While under the government of Spain, Gibraltar was a place upon which several kings had bestowed special privileges, on account of its presenting the first point of attack to the Moors of Barbary. Among other concessions granted by Ferdinand IV. and Alonzo XI., it was declared a place of refuge for all malefactors, its protective influence extending over them not only while there, but a residence of a year conferring the same immunity elsewhere. The sanctuary was not, however, available to traitors, to breakers of a treaty made by the king, nor to ravishers of a man's wife; nor to persons committing the above-mentioned crimes within the territory.

Little further is known of Gibraltar until the year 1704, when Sir George Rooke, who had been sent into the Mediterranean with a large fleet to assist Charles, Archduke of Austria, in recovering the Crown of Spain, finding nothing of importance to be done, called a council of war on the 17th of July, 1704, near Tetuan. After several schemes had been proposed (such as a second attack on Cadiz) and rejected, it was resolved to attempt the conquest of Gibraltar. On the 21st of July, the fleet arrived in the bay; 1,800 English and Dutch were landed on the isthmus, under the command of the Prince of Hesse d'Armstadt; the governor was summoned to surrender, and on his refusal, a cannonade was opened on the town by the

ships, under the orders of Admirals Byng and Vanderdussen. In five or six hours the enemy were driven from their guns, especially from the New Molehead, which the admiral wishing to possess himself of, ordered Captain Whitaker, with the armed boats, ashore; Captains Hicks and Jumper, however, first pushed to land in their pinnaces, upon which the Spaniards blew up the fortifications, killing two lieutenants and forty men, and wounding sixty others. Notwithstanding this slaughter, the British resolutely held their ground, and on being joined by Captain Whitaker, advanced and took possession of a small bastion, half-way between the Mole and the town. The governor (the Marquis de Salines) being again summoned, thought it prudent to capitulate; for although the works were strong, mounting a hundred pieces of cannon, well appointed with ammunition and stores, the garrison consisted of only 150 men, exclusive of the inhabitants: hostages were therefore exchanged; and on the 24th of July, 1704, the Prince of Hesse took possession of the gates of Gibraltar, after a loss on the side of the British,—*killed*, two lieutenants, one master, and fifty-seven sailors; *wounded*, one captain, seven lieutenants, one boatswain, and 207 sailors.

Gibraltar has ever since continued in the hands of the English; not, however, without frequent attempts to wrest from them the envied prize. The courts of Madrid and Paris resolved on immediately attempting its recapture, and the Marquis de Villadarias, a Spanish grandee, assisted by six battalions of French troops, opened his trenches against the fortress on the 11th of October, 1704, and soon effected several breaches in the out-works. Sir John Leake, who had been left at Lisbon with a fleet for the succour of the garrison in case of need, threw into Gibraltar six months' provisions and ammunition, detaching on shore at the same time a body of 500 sailors, to assist in repairing the breaches caused by the enemy's fire. The energy of the besiegers amounted to desperation. Though the British squadron lay before the town, a scheme was formed for surprising the garrison; and, on the 31st of October, 500 volunteers took the sacrament, and departed with a determination never to return until they had retaken Gibraltar. A goatherd conducted this forlorn hope to the side of the rock near Cave Guard, and on the first night they lodged themselves unperceived in St. Michael's Cave; on the succeeding evening they scaled Charles V.'s wall, surprised and

* Gibraltar had previously been the chief city in the kingdom of Abomeliqne.

massacred the guard at Middle Hill, and several hundred of the party who had been ordered to sustain them, mounted from below. A strong detachment of British grenadiers marched immediately from the town, and attacked the invaders with such overwhelming vehemence, that 150 of the gallant Spaniards were killed on the rocks or driven over the precipices, and a colonel, with thirty officers, together with the remainder of the party, were taken prisoners; the French auxiliaries, who were to have supported them from below, having left them to their fate.

The combined forces continued the siege with great vigour, and Sir John Leake threw 2,000 additional men, with a proportionate quantity of ammunition and provisions, into the garrison; the Spanish general was also strengthened with a considerable body of infantry; and on the 11th and 12th of January, 1705, two attacks were made in the endeavour to carry the fortress, by storming a breach which had been effected in a round tower: they were, however, after some difficulty, both repulsed, with heavy loss in killed and wounded on either side.

With the new year the French and Spaniards renewed their preparations for attack; and the English ministry, aware of the importance of Gibraltar, ordered out reinforcements under Sir Thomas Dilkes and Sir John Hardy, to join Admiral Sir John Leake at Lisbon. The fleet, consisting of twenty-eight English, four Dutch, and eight Portuguese men-of-war, having on board two battalions, sailed on the 6th of March,—captured three French ships of the line, drove ashore and burnt the admiral's and another ship, and so strengthened the garrison, that Marshal Tesse, a Frenchman, who had succeeded the Spanish marquis, withdrew his troops from the trenches, and contented himself with forming a blockade to prevent the English from ravaging the country.

The siege was now considered at an end. During its continuance, the combined forces of France and Spain were diminished, by casualties and sickness, by at least 10,000; while the British loss did not exceed 400 men. By a separate treaty concluded with Spain on the 13th of July, 1713, the following terms were agreed on:—

"The Catholic King does hereby, for himself, his heirs and successors, yield to the Crown of Great Britain the full and entire property of the town and castles of Gibraltar, together with the port, fortification, and forts thereunto belonging; and he gives up the said property to be held and enjoyed absolutely with all manner of right for ever, without

any exception or impediment whatsoever; but that abuses and frauds may be avoided by importing any kind of goods, the Catholic King wills, and means it to be understood, that the above-named property be yielded to Great Britain without any territorial jurisdiction, and without any open communications by land with the country round about: yet whereas the communication by sea with the coast of Spain may not at all times be safe or open, and thereby it may happen that the garrison and other inhabitants of Gibraltar may be brought to great straits; and as it is the intention of the Catholic King only that fraudulent importations of goods should, as is above said, be hindered by any inland communication, it is therefore provided, that in such cases it may be lawful to purchase for ready money in the neighbouring territories of Spain, provisions and other things necessary for the use of the garrison and inhabitants, and the ships lying in the harbour; and her Britannic Majesty, at the request of the Catholic King, does consent and agree that no leave shall be given, under any pretence, either for Jews or Moors to reside or have any dwellings in the said town of Gibraltar; and that no refuge shall be allowed to any Moorish ships of war in the harbour of the town, whereby the communications between Spain and Centa may be obstructed, or the coasts of Spain be infested by the incursions of the Moors: her Majesty, the Queen of Great Britain, does further promise, that the free exercise of their religion shall be indulged to the Roman catholic inhabitants of the town; and in case it shall seem meet to the Crown of Great Britain to alienate therefrom the property of the said town of Gibraltar, that the preference of having the same shall always be given to the Crown of Spain."

Notwithstanding this formal cession, the Spaniards did not abandon their hopes of repossessing themselves of the "Rock." In 1720, the Marquis of Leda collected a formidable force, under pretence of relieving Centa, a Spanish fortress in Barbary, but in reality with the intention of surprising Gibraltar, then in a weak and almost defenceless state. The British ministry had timely notice of the enemy's intention. Colonel Kane, governor of Minorca, was immediately ordered to embark with part of his garrison (500 men) for Gibraltar; and such auxiliaries, together with the spirited conduct of the British commodore, induced the Spanish marquis to sail for Centa. Gibraltar remained unmolested until 1727, when the Count de las Torres, commander of the Spanish forces, collected 20,000 men, and advanced against the citadel. From February to June, the Spaniards prosecuted the siege with great vigour and bravery; but the garrison being reinforced from England, and the sea-way kept open, supplies were abundantly poured in, until, on the 12th of June, the news of preliminaries being signed for a general peace reached the belligerents, who thereupon concluded an armistice. During the siege

the garrison lost about 300 killed and wounded, and 70 cannon and 30 mortars burst: the Spanish casualties were estimated at 3,000 men. On the close of the contest the Spaniards erected lines and forts across the isthmus, about a mile from the garrison, thus effectually preventing any communication with the country, and by means of the western fort, called St. Philip's, took command of the best anchorage on the side of the bay next the garrison.

What the Spaniards could not obtain by force of arms, they endeavoured to gain by negotiation. The accession of Philip V. of Spain to the quadruple alliance of 1718, being an object which the courts of Great Britain and France had much at heart, the regent of France undertook, with the view of propitiating Philip, to prevail upon George I. to listen to a proposition for restoring Gibraltar to Spain,—which proposition the king did not reject, but only declined to entertain without the concurrence of the British parliament. Upon this point, private assurances of a more explicit nature were, it is said, made; it is even asserted that the regent of France pledged his word to Philip that that important fortress should be surrendered. After the Spanish monarch had publicly acceded to the quadruple alliance, he insisted that he had done so upon condition that Gibraltar should be restored to him, and that he had formally declared to the regent that such was the consideration (*the sine qua non*) upon which he had entered into the views of the allies. His remonstrances, just or unjust, being unheeded, he refused to fulfil various obligations which he had contracted towards Great Britain, and especially declined to issue a license authorising the trade of the South Sea Company with South America.

For the purpose of overcoming these difficulties, King George addressed a letter to Philip on the 21st of June, 1721, in which it was stated—"Puisse-je par une confiance que votre Majesté me témoigne je puis regarder les traités qui ont été en question entre nous comme rétablis et qu'en conformité les pièces nécessaires au commerce de mes sujets auront été extradées, je ne balance plus à assurer votre Majesté de ma promptitude à la satisfaire par rapport à sa demande touchant la restitution de Gibraltar, lui promettant de me servir des premières occasions pour régler cet article, du consentement de mon parlement."

That letter of King George led to a series

of earnest representations from Philip, which lasted until the year 1725, when the British minister at Madrid was cautioned "not to go on any further in proposals, or discourse of equivalents or expedients for the delivery of Gibraltar. No minister would have the boldness to advise such a kind of equivalent. The king had always told his Catholic Majesty that he could do nothing as to Gibraltar, without the concurrence of parliament. It would not be alienated without the consent of parliament. The behaviour of the Spanish court has been such that it is impossible they themselves can think his Majesty any longer under the least obligation of laying this demand before parliament." The fact probably is, that George I. would have given up Gibraltar to the Spaniards, but for the strong expression of public feeling in opposition to the measure.

Nothing deserving of note occurred for several years, until, in 1760, a mutiny was projected by two British regiments, who being a long time stationed on the "Rock," and seeing little prospect of being relieved, formed a plot to surprise and massacre their officers; the conspirators, however, in number 730, had their schemes discovered by means of a quarrel in a wine-house: one man was executed, ten condemned, and tranquillity restored. When hostilities commenced in 1762, the Spaniards made no effort for the conquest of Gibraltar; but the contest between Great Britain and her North American colonies, in 1777, and the subsequent hostilities between England and France, seemed to afford a favourable opportunity to Spain, who, on the 16th June, 1779, presented a hostile manifesto to the court of London, espousing the part of France. The main object of the court of Madrid was evidently the seizure of Gibraltar; and Spain, in common with the other continental powers, thought the loss of the North American colonies must strike such a blow at the maritime strength of England, as would completely overwhelm her—forgetting that she still possessed the Canadas and the West Indies, and that her eastern possessions were rapidly augmenting. On the 21st June, 1779, the communication between Spain and Gibraltar was closed by orders from Madrid; and even before any reply was given by the British ministry to proposals for a pacification (which, however, it was well known would be rejected), overtures had been privately made to the Emir of Morocco to form

his ports of Tetuan, Tangier, and Larache, in order to cut off Gibraltar from its domestic market and principal source of supply.

The strength of the garrison, when this memorable siege commenced, was as follows:—General G. A. Elliott, governor; Lieutenant-general R. Boyd, lieutenant-governor; Major-general de la Motte, commanding the Hanoverian brigade.

Regiments.	Officers.	Staff.	Ser-geants	Drum-mers.	Rank & File.
Artillery	25	—	17	15	428
12th regiment . .	26	3	29	22	506
39th ditto	25	4	29	22	506
56th ditto	23	4	30	22	508
58th ditto	25	3	29	22	526
72d ditto, or R.M.V.	29	4	47	22	944
Hanoverians:—					
Hardenbergs . .	16	13	42	14	367
Reden's	15	12	42	14	361
De la Motte's . .	17	16	42	14	367
Engineers, &c. . .	8	—	6	2	106
Total	269	59	313	169	4,652
Making an army of 5,382 men.					

The details of this protracted but most interesting warfare are given in small type to economise space.

The Spaniards, after cutting off the communication between the fortress and the mainland, blockaded the port with a superior naval force; not, however, with such strictness as to prevent several foreign flags, laden with provisions, from evading the vigilance of the enemy's cruisers. During the remainder of the year, viz., from June to December, 1779, nothing further was done by the Spaniards than strengthening their lines, and pushing forward with unceasing vigilance the extensive works with which they were preparing to bombard the fortress; indeed, famine began to erect its gaunt and horrid form: one woman died of want, many were so enfeebled that it was not without great care they recovered; and thistles, dandelions, wild leeks, &c., were for some time the daily nourishment of numbers.†

On the 12th January, 1780, the Spaniards fired ten shots at the fortress from Fort St. Philip, several of which came into the town: the first person struck during the siege happened to be a woman. On the 17th January, Admiral Sir George Bridges Rodney arrived from England, with a fleet of twenty-one sail of the line, and a large convoy of merchantmen, for the relief of the garrison—a circumstance which, of course, diffused general joy, which was not a little increased from the fact of a complete victory having been gained by the British over the Spanish admiral, whose vessel, together with three others of his squadron, were taken, one driven ashore, another

blown up during the engagement, and the rest dispersed.

It was in this fleet that Prince William Henry visited Gibraltar, and in contributing towards its relief, made his first appearance as a defender of that throne which it pleased Providence to permit him to adorn. His royal highness served as a midshipman under Admiral Digby, in the *Prince George*; and on one occasion in particular a circumstance occurred which Englishmen may be proud of. The Spanish admiral, Don Juan Langara (then a prisoner aboard the British fleet), visiting Admiral Digby one morning, was, of course, introduced to his royal highness. During the conference between the admirals, Prince William Henry quitted the cabin; and when it was intimated that Don Juan wished to retire, his royal highness appeared as the midshipman on duty, and respectfully informed the admiral that the boat was manned. The Spaniard could not contemplate the son of England's monarch acting as a petty officer unmoved, and, turning to Admiral Digby and his suite, he exclaimed—“*Well does Great Britain merit the empire of the sea, when the humblest strikers in her navy are occupied by princes of the blood!*” Sir George Rodney having recruited the garrison with supplies, added to its strength the second battalion of the 73rd regiment (1,000 strong), removed all useless mouths, and left Gibraltar to make its own defence. Nothing of moment occurred from January to June, excepting that the scurvy broke out in the garrison, disabling many hands; and the enemy attempted to destroy the few ships we had in the New Mole, by means of fireships, which was frustrated by the coolness and intrepidity of our seamen, who grappled with the floating masses of fire, and towed them clear of the anchorage under the walls, where, when broken up, they proved valuable to the besieged. The enemy continued, to the close of the year 1780, extending the different branches of their approaches, maintaining a rigorous blockade rather than using any active annoyances; and through the neglect, in England, of the ministry, in refusing a trifling aid to the Emperor of Morocco, the Spaniards succeeded in getting temporary possession of the Barbary ports, and by the removal of our consul, entirely cut off the garrison from those supplies which had heretofore proved of the utmost value.

In April, 1781, the distress of the garrison became very great, and starvation again appeared, a point which it was the grand object of the Spaniards to attain: but on the 12th, one hundred merchant vessels entered the bay, under convoy of Admiral Darby and several line-of-battle ships. The enemy, on perceiving this relief to the besieged, made instant preparations for bombarding the fortress, and as the van of the convoy came to anchor off the New Mole and Rosia Bay, the Spaniards opened a tremendous cannonade upon Gibraltar from 114 pieces of artillery, including fifty 13-inch mortars. The bombardment was continued on the 13th; several soldiers were killed and wounded in their quarters, and Ensign

* I am indebted to the late Colonel Drinkwater for the particulars given in the text. The gallant officer's *History of the late Siege* has helped to render it an imperishable monument of British endurance and valour.

† During the extreme scarcity, an ingenious mode of hatching chickens was practised by the Hanoverians. The eggs were placed with some cotton, wool, or other warm substance, in a tin case of such construction as to be heated either by a lamp or

hot water; and, by proper attention to the needful temperature, chickens were commonly hatched in the usual time of a hen's sitting. A *capon* was then taught to rear them: the fathers were plucked from the breast, which was then scoured with a bunch of nettles, and the bird placed upon the young hatch, whose downy warmth afforded such comfort to the bare and smarting parts, that this strange nurse, from that period, is said to have reared them up with a degree of care equalling that bestowed by a hen.

Martin wounded with splinters of stones. On the 14th, the effects of the continued bombardment were felt in the destruction of some wine-houses, which was the signal for a license to the soldiery, who were betrayed into most lamentable irregularities; some died of immediate intoxication, and several were with difficulty recovered by oils and tobacco-water; great quantities of liquor and goods were wantonly destroyed in revenge for the high prices which the Jews and other hucksters had been charging for provisions, which they had privately concealed in abundance; and among other instances of caprice and extravagance, there was one of roasting a pig at a fire made entirely of *cinnamon*: the timely adoption, however, of rigorous measures put an end to such scenes.

On the 15th April, the bombardment was continued with great vivacity. Not content with discharging their ordnance regularly, the Spaniards saluted the fortress almost every instant with a volley of eight or ten cannon, besides mortars; and their gun-boats kept up a smart attack on the shipping. The British batteries remained silent, and the guns against which the attacks of the enemy were principally directed were drawn behind the merlons to secure them against the effects of the enemy's shot. In a few days Gibraltar began to exhibit the results of this desperate bombardment, but every possible effort was made for the immediate reparation of the damage caused thereby.

So brisk was the Spanish fire on the 21st April, that forty-two rounds were numbered in two minutes; the only cessation was at mid-day, when the troops retired to enjoy the siesta, so common and so useful in a warm climate. In the beginning of May, the enemy's fire seldom exceeded a thousand rounds in the twenty-four hours, and their batteries were much shaken by the firing; but the mortar and gun-boats gathering fresh courage, advanced so near as to throw several shells into the garrison with disastrous effect. Towards the close of the month the cannonade considerably abated, and in the beginning of June decreased to about 500 rounds in the twenty-four hours. The bombardment during June scarcely exceeded 450 rounds in the twenty-four hours; yet the shot, though fired at so great a distance, frequently pierced seven solid feet of sand-bag work; and the British batteries were again greatly damaged. Throughout July the Spanish fire slackened, but much injury was done by their gun-boats. In August the bombardment diminished to three shells in the twenty-four hours; but the blockade was rigorously enforced, and advances pushed forward, with casks covered by fascines and sand, in front. In September, the firing from the garrison was increased, exceeding sometimes 700 rounds in the twenty-four hours, to which the enemy frequently returned 800 or upwards; and the British became so injured to danger as to intentionally expose themselves, scarcely deigning even to notice an unexploded shell at their feet: the result of this foolhardiness being the loss of several soldiers. The fire slackened during October, excepting on the 20th, when a brisk attack was kept up on a new battery erected about 1,200 yards from the grand battery. Our artillery fired 1,506 shot, 530 shells, ten carcasses, and two light balls; and the enemy returned 1,012 shot, and 302 shells. The British loss was somewhat considerable; that of the foe was supposed to have been very great. In November the Spaniards added to their parallels on the west, exhibiting

a perfect and formidable appearance, which General Elliott saw, if allowed to go on, would prove most destructive to the garrison: he therefore formed the daring project of making a sortie for the destruction of these works; and his design, happily, was unsuspected by the enemy. At midnight, on the 26th November, 1781, nearly 2,000 men assembled on the Red Sands in three columns, and when the moon had nearly finished her nightly course, began their desperate march on the Spanish lines: these were speedily reached, the enemy's fire received, the parapets gallantly mounted, and the ardour of the assailants being irresistible, the enemy gave way on every side, abandoning in an instant, and with the utmost precipitation, those works which had cost them so much expense, and so many months labour to perfect. A party of sailors aided the artillery in the work of destruction; the flames spread with astonishing rapidity; a column of fire and smoke rolled from the works, illuminating the surrounding country; and the Spaniards, whether from astonishment or fear, made no effort to save the lines, although only within a few hundred yards of their batteries, mounting 135 pieces of heavy artillery, which, however, kept up a useless fire on the fortress. In one hour the object of the sally was completed, trains were laid to the magazines, and, as the rear of the British re-entered the garrison, the principal Spanish store blew up with a tremendous explosion, throwing up vast masses of timber, which added to the general conflagration. The loss incurred in performing this feat was only four privates killed, a lieutenant and twenty-four men wounded, and one missing. The history of the British army, pregnant as it is with gallant deeds, presents none more daring or better planned than the one just detailed, in which not even a musket, working tool, or any needful implement was left behind. For several days the Spaniards seemed unable to rally from their late disgrace: their batteries continued in flames, which they made no attempt to extinguish. In the beginning of December they roused from their apathy, and upwards of a thousand men set to work, endeavouring to reconstruct the parallels.

The bombardment had now continued from April 12th to the close of the year 1781. The British loss, during this period, was as follows:—

	Officers.	Sergts.	Drumms.	Rank & File.	Total.
Killed and died of	3	10	1	108	122
wounds . . .					
Disabled . . .	2	7	1	36	46
Wounded . . .	13	22	6	359	400

So well were the enemy's guns directed, that one shot coming through the capped embrasures on the Princess Amelia's battery (Willis's), took seven legs off four men of the 72nd and 73rd regiments, and wounded a fifth. When brisk firing was going on, two boys, gifted with remarkably sharp eyes, were usually stationed with any large party, to inform the men when the Spaniards' fire was directed towards them: their sight was so keen as to see the enemy's shot almost the instant it quitted the gun; and in the instance above-mentioned, one of these boys had been reproving the men for not attending to his warnings, and had just turned his head when he observed the fatal shot coming, and instantly called out to his companions to take care; but unhappily without avail. From January to May, 1782, little occurred to diversify the monotonous course of the siege; and in the early part of May, twenty-four hours elapsed, in which, for the first time during thirteen months, there had been

a cessation of firing. During this period the enemy were making preparations for a grand *floating* battery of fire-proof ships, with which they resolved to aid a powerful bombardment from the land side: meanwhile the firing continued at intervals, and often produced destructive effects. In July, the Duke de Crillon assumed the command of the siege, and the combined army was understood to amount to forty-five battalions of infantry: the floating battery, which was intended to annihilate Gibraltar, was said to consist of ten ships constructed for the occasion, fortified six or seven feet thick on the larboard side with green timber, bolted with iron, cork, junk, and raw hides—gun-proof on the top, with a descent for the shells to glide off: they were to be moored within half a gun-shot of the walls with iron chains; and large boats with mantlets, to let down with hinges, were to be ready for the disembarkation of 40,000 disciplined troops, headed by the Count d'Artois, brother to the King of France, and covered by a squadron of men-of-war, bombs, ketches, and gun-boats. In August, 10,000 men were at work on the Spanish lines, within 800 yards of Gibraltar: the parallel included each shore of the isthmus, with a stupendous communication or outwork in front, the epaulment entirely raised with sand-bags, from ten to twelve feet high, with a proportionate thickness. The *Spanish Gazette* described the parallel as of 230 toises (a toise = 1 fathom = 6 feet) in length, and composed of 1,600,000 sand-bags.

The British troops witnessed unappalled these determined efforts for their destruction: the strength of the garrison, with the marine brigade (including officers), was but 7,500 men, of whom 400 were in the hospital; yet with this comparative handful, the assaults of the enemy were quietly provided against. As an indication of the chivalrous spirit in which the desperate contest was carried on, both by the Spaniards and the British, the following correspondence between the Duke de Crillon and General Elliott, two months after the former took the command of the Spanish and French forces, may be cited:—

“Camp of Buena-Vista, 19th August, 1782.

“Sir,—His royal highness Count d'Artois, who has received permission from the king, his brother, to assist at the siege as a volunteer in the combined army, of which their most Christian and Catholic Majesties have honoured me with the command, arrived in this camp the 15th inst. This young prince has been pleased, in passing through Madrid, to take charge of some letters which had been sent to that capital from this place, and which are addressed to persons belonging to your garrison: his royal highness has desired me to transmit them to you, and that to this mark of his goodness and attention I should add the strongest expressions of esteem for your person and character. I feel the greatest pleasure in conveying this mark of condescension from this august prince, as it furnishes me with a pretext, which I have been anxiously looking for these two months that I have been in camp, to assure you of the high esteem I have conceived for your excellency, of the sincere desire I feel of deserving yours, and of the pleasure with which I look forward to becoming your friend, after I shall have learned to render myself worthy of the honour, by facing you as an enemy. His highness the Duke de Bourbon, who arrived here twenty-four hours after the Count d'Artois, desires also that I should assure you of his particular esteem. Permit me, sir, to offer a few trifles for your table, of which I am sure you must stand in need, as I know you live entirely on vegetables: I should be glad to know what kind you like best. I shall add

some game for the gentlemen of your household, and also ice, which I presume will not be disagreeable in the excessive heat of this climate at this season of the year. I hope you will be obliging enough to accept the small portion which I send with this letter.

“I have the honour to be, &c.,

“B. B. DUC DE CRILLON.

“To his Excellency General Elliott.”

“Gibraltar, August 20th, 1782.

“Sir,—I find myself highly honoured by your obliging letter of yesterday, in which your excellency was so kind as to inform me of the arrival in your camp of his royal highness the Count d'Artois, and the Duke de Bourbon, to serve as volunteers at the siege. These princes have shown their judgment in making choice of a master in the art of war, whose abilities cannot fail to form great warriors. I am overpowered with the condescension of his royal highness in suffering some letters for persons in this town to be conveyed from Madrid in his carriages. I flatter myself that your excellency will give my most profound respect to his royal highness and to the Duke de Bourbon, for the expressions of esteem with which they have been pleased to honour so insignificant a person as I am. I return a thousand thanks to your excellency for your handsome present of fruits, vegetables, and game. You will excuse me, however, I trust, when I assure you, that in accepting your present I have broken through a resolution to which I had faithfully adhered since the beginning of the war; and that was, never to receive or procure, by any means whatever, any provisions or other commodity for my own private use: so that, without any preference, everything is sold publicly here; and the private soldier, if he has money, can become a purchaser as well as the governor. I confess, I make it a point of honour to partake both of plenty and scarcity in common with the lowest of my brave fellow-soldiers. This furnishes me with an excuse for the liberty I now take of entreating your excellency not to heap any more favours on me of this kind, as in future I cannot convert your presents to my own private use. Indeed, to be plain with your excellency, though vegetables at this season are scarce with us, every man has got a quantity proportioned to the labour which he has bestowed in raising them. The English are naturally fond of gardening and cultivation; and here we find our amusement in it during the intervals of rest from public duty. The promise which the Duke de Crillon makes, of honouring me in proper time and place with his friendship, lays me under infinite obligations. The interest of our sovereigns being once solidly settled, I shall with eagerness embrace the first opportunity to avail myself of so precious a treasure.

“I have the honour to be, &c.,

“G. A. ELLIOTT.

“To his Excellency the Duke de Crillon, &c., &c.”

The firing was very brisk in the beginning of September: that of the British batteries set fire repeatedly to the hostile lines; while so well were their guns served, that Major Martin, of the artillery, had the cock of his hat shot off close to the crown by a 26-pounder; the major, however, experienced no other injury than being stunned by the wind of the shot. On the morning of the 8th September, an almost simultaneous attack was made on all sides; nine line-of-battle ships passed along the garrison, discharging several broadsides at the works; fifteen gun and mortar-boats approached the town, and 170 pieces of ordnance, all of large calibre, opened in one tremendous fire from the Spanish lines. The enemy kept up the cannonade throughout the following day, resumed it at gun-fire on the 10th, and by seven A.M. had discharged (including the expenditure on the 8th) 5,527 shots, and 2,302 shells, exclusive of the number fired by the men-of-war and mortar-boats.

The bombardment continued at the rate of 4,000 shots in the twenty-four hours, when, on the morning of the 12th September, the combined fleets of France and Spain, amounting to seven three-deckers, thirty-one ships of two decks, three frigates, and a number of xebecs, bomb-ketches, and hospital ships, entered the bay, and in the afternoon were all at anchor between the Orange Grove and Algeiras. It needed stout hearts to remain undaunted before this formidable armament: forty-seven sail of the line, ten battering ships (perfect in design, and deemed invincible, carrying 212 guns), many frigates, xebecs, bomb-ketches, cutters, gun and mortar-boats, and disembarking craft, were then assembled in Gibraltar Bay; on the land side there were stupendous batteries and works, mounting 200 pieces of heavy ordnance, protected by an army of 40,000 men, commanded by a victorious and active general, in the immediate presence of two princes of the blood-royal of France, and many of the highest nobility of both countries; the *coup d'œil* affording a military spectacle such as the annals of war had perhaps never before, and (excepting the siege of Sebastopol) never since, presented. The Spaniards and French deemed success certain; the little band of British hoped for the best; and as danger and death became more imminent, their courage and presence of mind grew firmer also.

The batteries from the Spanish lines, which had continued the formidable fire, opened on the morning of the 13th September, 1782, and were soon supported by the battering ships, which moved to the attack in admirable order, and moored within 900 yards of the King's bastion; in a few minutes *four hundred pieces* of the heaviest artillery were playing simultaneously from the garrison and from their assailants. After some hours, the battering ships were found to be as formidable as report had represented; the heaviest shells often rebounded off their sloped summits, whilst 32-pound shot seemed incapable of making an impression on their dense sides. Frequently the besieged viewed with delight these floating masses of destruction on fire, but by the application of fire-engines from within, the incipient conflagrations were speedily extinguished. About noon the enemy's cannon, which had been previously too much elevated, became very destructive, and the British then resorted to what had been long looked forward to with a prospect of success—the firing of *red-hot balls*. The spirit of the British troops was now roused to an almost unnatural pitch; the whole of their combined energies were directed towards the battering ships; they disregarded in a great measure the land batteries, and the guns sent forth an almost continuous stream in the shape of red-hot balls, carcasses, and shells of every description. For some hours the fierce conflict continued with doubtful success; but towards evening the scarcely credible efforts of the besieged began to overwhelm the foe; the admiral's ship was perceived in flames, the second in command was soon in the same awful condition, and by eight P.M. the assault had almost entirely ceased from the disabled squadron. The English continued firing throughout the livelong night, and the shrieks and moans of the dying told a piteous tale, which the dawning day painfully verified. About two o'clock on the morning of the 14th, one of the battering ships was a mass of fire from stem to stern; another to the southward was in a similar state; and the flames threw a vivid glare over the

scene of desolation around, which was heightened by six other of the battering ships becoming enveloped in the same awful blaze. Yet, amidst all this misery and suffering, it is well to record the triumph of humanity, even over the brutalising passions of war:—Brigadier Curtis, with the sailors of the navy, repeatedly risked their own lives in saving their enemies from the devouring element, when they had been abandoned by their terrified fellow-combatants and countrymen. Of the six battering ships which were in flames, three blew up before eleven o'clock; the other three burnt to the water's edge, the magazines having been wetted by the officers previous to their departure; the remaining two large vessels the victors were in the hope of preserving as trophies, but were disappointed, for one of these took fire, and blew up with a terrible explosion, and the other was burnt by our sailors, when it was found impossible to prevent its gradual destruction. The Spanish loss was never satisfactorily ascertained; but from the numbers seen dead on board, it could not have been less than 2,000 men,* including the prisoners; the casualties of the garrison, on the contrary, were trifling, consisting in killed, of one officer, two sergeants, and thirteen rank and file; and in wounded, of five officers, and sixty-three rank and file; and it must be remembered that the enemy had in this action more than 300 pieces of heavy ordnance in play, whilst the garrison had only eighty cannon, seven mortars, and nine howitzers in opposition; with which, however, they expended upwards of 8,300 rounds (more than half of which were *hot shot*), and 716 barrels of gunpowder. The Spaniards were so much mortified by this defeat, that preparations were made for a desperate assault, with a view to carry, if possible, the garrison by storm; but the project was overruled by the Duke de Crillon, who thought an unsuccessful attack would expose the army and fleet to immediate destruction. The energies of the enemy were now directed towards the land batteries, and every effort made to extend their works and destroy the British, by firing from 600 to 1,000 shots every twenty-four hours, which system they continued with more or less vivacity throughout the months of September, October, and November. During this period, and in the face of powerful artillery, English engineers rebuilt the whole flank of the Prince Orange bastion (120 feet in length) with solid masonry—a fact scarcely paralleled in any siege. The besieging force now turned their attention chiefly towards blowing up the north part of the rock by means of a mine, a project which had been formed during the previous siege of 1727; but being contravened in this attempt, they began to relinquish the idea of recovering Gibraltar by arms, and towards the conclusion of December, and throughout the month of January, 1783, confined themselves to annoying the garrison by attacks of gun and mortar-boats in regular reliefs, which caused considerable mischief. February, 1783, was ushered in by an animated fire from the British, the effects of which were felt throughout the Spanish lines; but, to the relief of the besiegers rather than of the besieged, on the second day of the month, the Duke de Crillon announced by a flag of truce to General Elliott, that the preliminaries of a general peace had been signed between Great Britain, France, and Spain. When the boats of the here-

* The battering ships had, it was said, 112 guns in use, and seventy in reserve; the whole manned by 5,200 men.

tofore belligerents met, the Spaniards rose up with transports of joy, shouting, "*We are all friends!*" and delivered the letters of peace with the greatest satisfaction: in the evening all firing finally ceased; on the 5th the port of Gibraltar was declared *open*, and amicable intercourse straightway commenced between the Spanish and British lines, while the latter were waiting the official communication of the intelligence from London, which at length arrived on the 10th March, 1784.

Thus ended a siege which, as regards duration (three years, seven months, and twelve days), the power of the attacking force, the quantity of ammunition expended, and the magnanimous and triumphant defence, is unparalleled in the annals of ancient or modern warfare.* The nation justly gloried in the stand which a handful of Britons had made against the united efforts of Spain and France; the cordial thanks of both Houses of Parliament were given to the brave garrison of Gibraltar, and General Elliott (subsequently Lord Heathfield) was invested with the highest rank of the order of the Bath, as a mark of his Majesty's appreciation of the heroism and skill which the gallant veteran had manifested in maintaining one of England's most valuable maritime outposts.

Since this memorable siege, Gibraltar has remained unmolested in the possession of England: few events have occurred there requiring notice in the present work. It would be, however, unjust to pass on to the next section without adverting to one of its governors, whose character and efforts as a military commander are perhaps not adequately appreciated by his countrymen. This royal person (the late Duke of Kent), having chosen the profession of arms for his occupation, was sent to Germany by his Majesty's

* The trifling loss of the besieged was not a little remarkable when the strength of the besiegers is considered: it was as follows:—

Casualties.	Officers.	Ser- geants.	Drum- mers.	Rank & File.	Total.
Killed . . .	5	19	2	107	223
Died of wounds	1	6	2	101	110
Died of sickness	7	22	2	505	536
Disabled by wounds . . .	3	13	2	120	138
Wounded, } but recov'd. }	31	46	20	773	870
Deserted . .	—	—	—	43	43a

a Strange to say, the desertions from the Spanish side to the English were far more numerous.

The ammunition expended, consisted, on our side—of shots, 57,163; shells, 129,151; grape, 12,681; carcasses, 926; light balls, 679; making a total of 200,000 rounds; and with the gun-boat addition of 4,728 shots, 205,328: the gunpowder expended was very near 8,000 barrels, and the number of ordnance damaged and destroyed during the siege, fifty-three.

command, in May, 1785, being then in his eighteenth year. In the Hanoverian service his royal highness commenced his military duties, serving first as a sergeant, and successively rising in rank,—in order that, as the best qualification for command, he might learn to obey. In January, 1790, the duke returned to England, and after passing ten days at home, embarked at the short notice of forty-eight hours for Gibraltar. In May, 1791, the duke was ordered to Canada;† and in December, 1793, to the West Indies, to join the army under the late Lord Grey; and there his gallant behaviour, in leading attacks against the enemy, was such as to call forth the repeated warnings of the commander-in-chief regarding his too daring courage. At the close of the campaign in 1794, his royal highness, pursuant to his royal father's desire, returned to North America, where he was placed on the staff; and after having served at Halifax as major-general until 1796, and as lieutenant-general to 1798, was then compelled to return to England in consequence of an injury received by his horse falling, when riding home after a garrison field day. In May, 1799, the duke was promoted to the rank of general, and appointed commander-in-chief in North America; but, unfortunately, the transport in which his equipment was embarked, was totally lost on the coast of North America. In the autumn of 1800, the precarious state of the duke's health necessitated the obtaining of leave of absence: he returned to England, and in March, 1802, was appointed to the government of Gibraltar. Frequent changes of place, foreign service, losses incurred by shipwreck, &c.,‡ As regards similar details on the Spanish side, we have but scanty data. According to a laboratory account, the number of shots and shells from the lines was—shots, 175,741; shells, 68,363; and from the Spanish gun-boats, in shots and shells, 14,283; showing 258,387 rounds, all of a heavy character. Neither the number of barrels of powder expended in this immense discharge, nor the number of ordnance destroyed, have ever been ascertained; it must, however, have been very great.

‡ While in Hanover, the allowance to his royal highness was but a guinea and a-half a-week; and when proceeding to Gibraltar and to Canada, no outfit was granted.

† In proceeding from Canada to join the British army in the West Indies, the Duke of Kent, finding the St. Lawrence closed for the winter, crossed into the United States in the midst of most severe weather, and, in doing so, lost his whole equipage, valued at £2,000, in Lake Champlain, by the breaking in of the ice. In 1794, when again in North America, his royal highness ordered out from Eng-

tended to straiten the pecuniary means of the Duke of Kent; and on application being made at the Treasury for the customary outfit consequent on his appointment as commander-in-chief for North America, he was informed that such was not usual, as the government of Gibraltar was considered *so very good a thing*, that its emoluments would soon abundantly cover the expenses of equipment: indeed, the income from the wine-house licences alone was, under General O'Hara (the duke's predecessor), £7,000 per annum; but by reason of his royal highness's measures for the suppression of drunkenness, it was reduced to £2,000 per annum. Nothing, therefore, could more strongly illustrate the new governor's strictly moral and honourable character, than the fact that one of the earliest steps which he took on assuming the administration of Gibraltar, was the annihilation of the principal source of his income, which was derived from the import of wines and spirituous liquors, and the licences for the sale thereof. Educated as a strict disciplinarian, the Duke of Kent viewed with alarm and disgust the disorganised state of the troops forming the garrison of Gibraltar, a portion of whom had recently returned from the East, flushed with victory, disorganised by excess, and scattering their prize-money with a wastefulness of which the highest officers did not

scruple to take advantage for the replenishment of their own coffers. No commander accustomed to regard discipline as essential to the efficiency of an army, could hesitate as to the need of speedy and decisive measures. His royal highness endeavoured to recall the officers and men to a sense of the duty they owed to themselves and their country: he himself never exacted from the meanest soldier that which he would have hesitated to perform himself, but set an example to the troops of method, punctuality, and sobriety of conduct. I have now before me a copy of the duke's garrison orders, printed at Gibraltar in 1803, every line of which affords proof of a zealous desire to restore the discipline of the troops, and a consistent endeavour, by rigid attention to what might otherwise be considered minutiae, to remove that laziness of habit and carelessness of manner so detrimental to the happiness and efficiency of the men. In these laudable efforts his royal highness was far from being seconded by those whose imperative duty it was to have afforded prompt and cordial co-operation. An occasion was not long wanting for designing men to work on the minds of the garrison, who had before them the example of two former mutinies, in which the malcontents escaped with complete impunity; and the issuing of orders* decrecing the stricter regulation of the canteens and wine-shops (which of course

land an equipage to be sent to his station. It was embarked in his Majesty's packet *Antelope*, which sailed from Falmouth on 19th August, 1794, and was captured by a squadron of French privateers on the 19th September following; thus occasioning a second loss of £2,000. His royal highness was, of course, obliged to renew the order for another equipage, which being executed, was duly shipped. The packet *Tankerville*, with its ill-omened freight, sailed from Falmouth on the 14th December, 1794, and was captured on the passage to Halifax on the 10th of February following: thus raising this disastrous item to £6,000. Another attempt was made by his royal highness to procure an equipage when nominated as lieutenant-general at Halifax, in 1796, and £4,000 worth of stores, &c., were shipped on board the *Recovery* transport, at Deptford, under the direction of Captain Rahies; but this transport also fell into the hands of the enemy, as certified by Sir Rupert George. Thus four times the ducal equipage was totally lost; but the fifth was the heaviest misfortune, which occurred in 1799, when the duke was appointed commander-in-chief of the British forces in North America. The transport ship *Francis*, wholly laden with his personal baggage and equipage, was foundered off Sable Island, by which catastrophe £11,000 were added to the previous obligations of the illustrious commander; amounting altogether to £21,000, for which the Treasury refused any compensation, excepting the loss on Lake Champlain; and even

this was not reimbursed until thirteen years after the event.

* *Standing Regulations for Regimental Canteens at Gibraltar.*—(Order Book, 1803, printed at the garrison library.) "1. The canteen is invariably to be held by a sergeant of respectability, and one who will keep up and enforce his authority as such: he is to be allowed the assistance of one careful man. It is not to be open on any day until one hour after guard mounting; it is not to remain open later than the drummer's call beats for tattoo—viz., half-an-hour before second evening gun-fire; it is to be shut whenever the regiment is on parade, or out in the field, and not to open on Sundays until after divine service in the Convent chapel is over. 2. No spirituous liquor, whether mixed or unmixed, of any sort or kind, is to be sold upon any pretence whatsoever; the sale, therefore, of liquor is limited to wine, malt liquor, cider, and beer. 3. No cards, dice, or gambling of any description, are to be allowed in it. 4. No liquor whatsoever is to be sold for any other purpose than that of being drank in the canteen, as none is on any pretence to be carried out of it, except for the use of the families of outlyers, and then the quantity sold to any one person is not to exceed one pint, nor is any to be delivered to children under the age of fifteen years. 5. No liquor whatsoever is to be sold on trust; and therefore, if any non-commissioned officer or soldier be suffered to depart without paying for what he

immediately diminished the income of the commander-in-chief, who profited in proportion to the quantity consumed, and the number of canteens established), became the exciting cause of a real or pretended mutiny, on the suppression of which the duke returned to England, and there vainly sought redress from the existing authorities, who ought to have punished the *second in command* in Gibraltar.*

PHYSICAL ASPECT.—Gibraltar mountain or promontory (forming with that of Ceuta upon the opposite coast of Barbary, the narrow channel which connects the Atlantic Ocean with the Mediterranean) is of an oblong form, with a length, north and south, of two miles and three-quarters, a breadth nowhere exceeding three-quarters of a mile, and a circumference of about seven miles. The greatest extent of the peninsula, from Forbes' barrier to the flagstaff of Europa, is 4,700 yards; the breadth, from the New Mole to the sea, at the back of the "Rock," 1,600 yards; from Europa Point, in the south of Gibraltar, to Cabrita Point on the Spanish side (which two points form

the mouth of the bay), 10,915 yards. The area of Gibraltar and the adjacent territory is thus stated:—Neutral ground (including gardens, meadow and arable land), 106 acres; North Glacis, three-and-a-half acres; Convent grounds, two-and-a-quarter; South Glacis, seven; Alameda and grounds to South Barracks, thirty-three and three-quarters; back of South Barracks to upper boundary of commissioners' garden, eight; gardens behind the naval officers' quarters, as high as cultivation extends, twelve and three-quarters; North Ditch, about one-quarter; South ditto, one-quarter; farms up the hill, ten; government grounds below Europa Flats, three-and-a-quarter; parterres and gardens attached to houses within the town of Gibraltar, ten—total, 197 acres. The summit is a sharp craggy ridge, running from north to south, the greatest elevation being to the southward, where Sugar-Loaf Point rises to 1,139 feet above the sea-level; Rock Mortar, the highest point to the northward, is 1,350 feet, and Signal House, the central point between the two, has an elevation of 1,276 feet.

has been supplied with before he leaves the canteen, he is cleared of all obligation to pay afterwards. 6. No non-commissioned officer or soldier is to be permitted to leave in pledge any part of his dress, necessities, or appointments, for liquor, nor is anything to be received but money; therefore, if any one calls for more than he can pay for on the spot, he is immediately to be sent prisoner to the regimental guard-house, charged with the crime of disobedience of orders, for the purpose of being brought to a court-martial and punished for the same. 7. No non-commissioned officers or soldiers of any other corps but that to which the canteen belongs, nor any stranger of any description, except being passed in by a commissioned officer, the sergeant-major, or quartermaster-sergeant, is to be admitted into the canteen without producing permission in writing from the commanding officer of the corps; nor are any persons to be supplied with liquor from it, but the non-commissioned officers, &c., belonging to the regiment. 8. No non-commissioned officer or soldier who has the least appearance of intoxication, is to be permitted to enter the canteen; such as show a disposition to drunkenness or rioting are immediately to be sent to their barracks, and if disobedient to the orders of the non-commissioned officer holding the canteen, when directed to go there, are to be sent prisoners to the guard-house, with a crime against them, for refusing to obey his orders. 9. The non-commissioned officer having charge of the canteen is to be obeyed by the other non-commissioned officers and soldiers, as next in rank to the quartermaster-sergeant, in everything relating to the carrying on the business of the canteen. He and his assistant have authority to call upon the barrack guard for assistance, whenever good order and regularity are in danger of being disturbed; but on no other occasion, except when called upon for

this purpose, are non-commissioned officers or soldiers, on duty, to enter the canteen. 10. The captain of the day and orderly officer are each of them frequently to visit the canteen, and if they discover any irregularity or breach of these regulations during the time they are on duty, they are to report the same to the commanding officer in writing. 11. The established price of wine and malt liquor is to be at the following rate, and never to be altered without an order from the commanding officer—viz., Malaga, two reals per quart; black wine, one real and a-half per quart; porter, one real and a-half per bottle; and beer, one real per quart. The wine to be sold in the same state as it is purchased from the merchant, and any attempt to adulterate it is, on detection, to be punished in the most exemplary manner."

* Captain Conran, referring subsequently to this affair, says, in a letter to the Duke of Kent—"It is a subject I never can reflect on but with the most heartfelt concern, as even at this distant period it appears to make such impressions on your royal highness's mind. Every loyal and well-affected man of that garrison must think and feel as I do, and must regret that the state of the garrison prior to your royal highness's coming to the command of it, and indeed the weak, I may add, worse than no support that your royal highness received from the *second in command*, never was laid before the public." In the 10th volume of the *Colonial Library*, published in 1839, I have given entire, the correspondence of his royal highness with the Duke of York, Lord Castlereagh, &c. The duke, after persevering for several years in demanding investigation, retired into private life, and devoted himself to relieving the distressed, and promoting zealously and efficiently the interests of the metropolitan charities.

The promontory is unequally divided by the above-mentioned ridge, the side facing the Mediterranean being narrower and much steeper than that next the bay, on which stands the town and fortifications. The west side of the mountain is a series of rugged slopes, interspersed with abrupt declivities; the east consists mostly of a range of precipices; but a bank of sand, rising from the Mediterranean with a rapid ascent, covers one-third of its perpendicular height. The southern extremity of the promontory has a steep descent from the Sugar-Loaf summit to a rocky flat called Windmill-hill, thus forming half an oval, bounded by a chain of precipices, at the southern base of which a second rocky flat occurs similar in form and extent to Windmill-hill, and also, like it, surrounded by a rocky wall, the extreme southern termination of which, called Europa Point, is washed by the sea. The northern point of Gibraltar is connected with the mainland and is perfectly perpendicular, except towards the north-west, where the "Lines" are formed; thence a narrow passage of flat land leads to the low sandy isthmus, or neutral ground, the greatest height of which does not exceed ten feet above the level of the sea; its breadth near Gibraltar is 950 yards; midway to the garrison, 1,200 yards; and towards the Spanish lines (which are 1,650 yards from the outworks of Gibraltar), 1,750 yards. The isthmus has Gibraltar Bay on the west, and the Mediterranean Sea on the east: it is of an irregular shape, the sand extending considerably beyond the Spanish lines, both on the Mediterranean and Bay sides; so that its circumference may be estimated at eight to ten miles.*

Gibraltar Bay, situate on the west side of the mountain, is nearly eight miles and a-half long, and in breadth upwards of five;

the circumference being between thirty and forty miles. At some points the beach is rocky, especially in front of the town; at others it is sandy, as at Rosia in the south, and Catalan Bay at the back of the Rock, towards its northern extremity; in spring-tides the water rises in the bay about four feet, washing the base of the fortifications.

The bay is bordered on the Spanish side by ranges of high land, which sweep around it, in a semicircular form, at the distance of three or four miles: hills of moderate height are clearly perceptible above the sandy isthmus, and extend into the interior in groups of various elevations, till, at the distance of twelve leagues to the eastward, the ancient city of Ronda presents itself, and forms the centre of an extensive sierra or chain of mountains, which bears its name: a part of this sierra extends towards Malaga, and another towards Seville. The Straits of Gibraltar stretch for about twelve leagues from Cape Spartel to Ceuta Point on the African coast, and from Cape Trafalgar to Europa Point on the coast of Spain. At the western or Atlantic entrance they are some eight leagues broad; they diminish considerably towards the middle, and again expand between Gibraltar and Ceuta, where they are about five leagues wide. In the narrowest part of the "Gut," between Tarifa and Alcanzar Point, which is about nine miles broad, the depth varies from 160 to 500 fathoms: but between Gibraltar and Ceuta, Captain Smith sounded to the depth of 950 fathoms (5,700 feet), and there found a gravelly bottom, with fragments of broken shells. Through these Straits the current on the surface of the ocean sets constantly from the Atlantic into the Mediterranean; beneath the surface there is doubtless an under-current from the Mediterranean into the Atlantic.†

* Colonel James gives the following measurements and bearings of several points:—Length of the peninsula from Forbes' battery to the flagstaff at Europa, 4,700 yards; breadth from the New Mole to the sea at the back of the Rock, 1,600; distance from Forbes' battery to the Spanish lines, 1,650; the fort west of the lines, 1,800; the head of the causeway to the demolished tower, 570; round tower, 870; the Spanish battery, intended to demolish the Old Mole, to the said work, 900; the mortar battery near the Levant shore to Queen's battery at Willis's, 535; the nearest battery of the Spaniards to the grand battery, 700; the head of the Spanish approaches to the head of the foundation, 150; the Sergeant's Guard, bay side, to the first garden, 110; breadth of the isthmus near the Spanish lines, 1,750; at the Spanish advanced huts, 1,200; near Gibraltar-hill, 950; the Old Mole-head to Europa flagstaff, south

05° 57' west, 4,649; the New Mole-head to Europa flagstaff, south 09° 31' east, 2,231; the Old Mole-head to New Mole-head, south 09° 23' west, 2,561 yds. *Distances of places across the Bay.*—Cabrita batteries and flagstaff—Old Mole-head, west, 10,949 yards; Europa flagstaff, 8,802; tower on Cabrita Point—Old Mole-head, west, and Europa flagstaff, 3,785; tower south of Old Gibraltar, and north of Sandy Bay—Old Mole-head, 9,246; Europa flagstaff, west, 8,725; middle of the island of Algeiras—Old Mole-head, west, 8,275; Europa flagstaff, west, 8,854; the tower in the country—Old Mole-head, west, 10,531; Europa flagstaff, west, 12,281 yards.

† This idea is confirmed by the circumstance of a Dutch merchant ship being sunk by the broadside of a French privateer in the middle of the Gut (as the Straits are termed) between Tarifa and Tangier; a few days after which, the sunken ship, with her

GIBRALTAR TOWN is built on the north-west face of the promontory, extending from the Landport to the Southport gate; the main street, which leads directly between the two gates, is about three-fourths of a mile in length. An idea of the leading thoroughfares may be formed from the following diagram :

Eastern parallel Street, or Town Range.

North. Main Street. South.

Western parallel Street, or Irish Town.

These streets, and those which communicate with them, are as level as the generality of those in English towns, though the town would appear to be built on the precipitous slope of a hill. The better class of houses are generally three to four stories high, built after the English model; in some parts the Spanish, or probably Moorish, construction prevails, there being a central courtyard, into which the rooms of the dwelling open; the roofs, however, are not flat or terraced as in Malta. The communication between the town and the isthmus is by a long narrow causeway, defended by a curtain with two bastions, a dry ditch, covered-way, and glacis well mined. These, together with the causeway, are completely flanked by the King's, Queen's, and Prince's lines,—works cut in the Rock with immense labour, and scarped so as to be almost inaccessible. Above these lines are the Willis batteries; still higher than which, other works

stand at different heights: even the very summit is crowned with mortars and cannon, entirely commanding the isthmus below. The Old Mole, to the west of the grand battery, forms also a formidable flank, and, with the lines, pour a cross-fire on the causeway and neutral ground. Indeed, the grand battery and the Old Mole exhibit such a formidable appearance from the causeway, as to be termed by the Spaniards "*the mouth of fire.*"

Along the sea line Gibraltar town is equally well protected, and nature has lent her aid by means of a shoal of sharp rocks, extending along the front of the fortifications far into the bay, which prevents vessels of very large burthen from approaching close to the walls. At the New Mole there is depth of water sufficient for a ship of the line to lie alongside of the wharf and heave down: the anchorage is strongly protected. From New Mole Fort to Rosia Bay the works are strong, and act as flanks to each other; they rise close along the low beach, and are protected by a battery in the rear. To particularise the other defences down to Europa Point and around it, is neither necessary nor politic.

With regard to the town of Gibraltar, though much improved of late years, it is still confined, ill-ventilated, and overcrowded with inhabitants; the number of whom have, however, been diminished by the erection of villages at Catalan Bay and on the neutral ground.* As may be expected in a

cargo of brandy and oil, was cast ashore near Tangier, twelve miles to the westward of the place where she went down. Those who deny the existence of a counter-current, and yet find a difficulty in understanding what can become of the vast body of water flowing constantly through the Straits at a rate of from three to six miles an hour, which no solar evaporation can suffice to carry off, suppose subterranean communication may exist between the Mediterranean and Black Sea, though the latter has a current through the Dardanelles into the former.

* Previous to the year 1814, Gibraltar was notorious for filth; deficient even in common sewers, without effective scavenging arrangements, without pavements on proper principles; in short, it had obtained the bad pre-eminence of being the dirtiest garrison belonging to the Crown. On landing at the New Mole, the first objects, says Dr. Hennen, that struck the eye, were certain enclosures marked "Dépôt," in which all the filth of the neighbourhood was stored up to be removed at leisure. The fetor from these collections was offensive in the extreme; the effluvia which arose from them were diffused all around; and they were placed so close to each other, as to keep up a chain of putrescent exhalations, which tainted the whole atmosphere. When the work of reformation commenced, the dépôts were emptied into the sea, and the necessary measures were taken for constructing com-

mon sewers through the principal streets. From the rocky nature of the ground, in most situations, this was a work of considerable labour and expense; but by judicious plans and patient perseverance, it has been accomplished in an effectual manner; many thousand running feet of new drains having been constructed, and minor ones in communication with the main trunks. The town-major is director of police, with a suitable proportion of town-sergeants, &c., &c., and there are two sub-directors outside the garrison—officers in military charge of Catalan Bay, and the villages and buildings on the neutral ground and north front, whose duty it is, as much as possible, to regulate the sanitary arrangements of the mixed class which forms the mass of the inhabitants of these places. There is a scavenging department, which not only regulates the town, but every part of the garrison and neutral ground, whence the animal matter is conveyed, divided from the other rubbish, and buried on the eastern extremity of the beach. This branch is under the superintendence of the garrison quartermaster. By the police regulations, the householders, principal inhabitants, and occupants of separate buildings, stores, or warehouses, are to be provided at all times at their several premises, with a strong tub or cask, for receiving the dirt and filth which may accumulate in the course of the twenty-four hours, to be in readiness for the carts of the scavenging department to remove the contents

town subject to bombardment, the public edifices are neither numerous nor beautiful. The governor resides in a building which was formerly a Franciscan convent, and has also a delightful cottage at Europa Point. There is an English and Spanish church, and an exchange, session-house, library, &c. The barracks are on an extensive and substantial scale, consisting of casements and detached buildings, the latter principally occupied by married people. The casements have mostly two stories, built of stone, and are generally bomb-proof. The hospitals are on a superior scale, particularly the naval one, which is unsurpassed in any part of the globe: it is situate in an open level space

daily. Dirty water, dust, dead animal and vegetable matter, or filth of any description, is forbidden to be thrown out of the windows or doors, or to be placed in the streets, passages, or gutters, under a penalty. The butcheries and markets are equally well regulated. Cattle are not permitted to be slaughtered in any other place than the *zooa* or butchery on the neutral ground (with the exception of calves, under particular restrictions.) The hours of slaughtering are limited to between three o'clock P.M. and sunset; and the meat is not allowed to be brought into the garrison before the next morning; so that abundant time is given it for cooling and thorough cleansing; the time for conveying it into the garrison is limited to two hours after sunrise. The cleansed offal—as head, heart, suet, and tallow—is permitted to be brought in during the same evening that the animal has been killed, for the purpose of immediate sale, but no garbage of any description is admitted at any time. In the neighbourhood of the *zooa*, sheds for several hundred head of cattle are erected. Their food consists of about ten pounds of chopped straw, four of beans bruised, and a proportion of barley per diem, with water once a day *ad libitum*. The cattle for the troops are chiefly procured from Barbary, under a treaty by which 2,000 head are annually permitted to be exported from that country for the use of the garrison; whatever surplus remains after supply of the troops, is sold by the contractor for his own benefit. The breed is very small, but they fatten rapidly. The meat is conveyed in covered carts, crates, or baskets; and the filthy practice of blowing by the mouth is forbidden. With regard to the place of sale, the regulations are equally judicious;—no unwholesome or tainted meat is permitted to be sold; no live cattle of any description are permitted to enter the market; nor are hides, wool, or lumber allowed to remain in the stalls. No beds are permitted within the marketplace. All the stalls are washed every evening throughout the year, and no individuals are allowed to remain in them at night. They are whitewashed twice a month. The cleanliness and regularity of the slaughter-houses, cattle-stalls, &c., is a branch of the police under the town-adjutant. The stalls are let out, and the product forms part of an orphan fund. The practice of erecting stalls and benches in the public streets, for the sale of goods, is entirely prohibited. Temporary benches are permitted to be placed in certain situations during the early part of the day, for general convenience. Taverns, wine-

below Buena-Vista, 130 feet above the level of the sea, and is capable of accommodating 500 patients within the walls, and 500 more might tenant marquees on the area or terrace in front. The remains of an old Moorish castle still exist, situate on the north-west side of the hill; forming an extensive enclosure of about eleven acres, within which are several houses occupied by officers and soldiers. The walls and relics still extant evidence the energy and magnificence of the Saracenic invaders of Spain. The whole surface of Gibraltar abounds in caves, fissures, and pot-like holes. The most celebrated cave is that called St. George's by the Spaniards, and St. Michael's by the English: it lies to the

houses, and eating-houses are placed under strict regulations. The admission and lodging of strangers is attended to in the most rigid manner, and the whole arrangements are placed under the immediate surveillance of the police. The burial-places were suspected of being very efficient agents in the production of the epidemic of 1813. The smell issuing from the principal one is described by Dr. Robertson as having been extremely offensive; and he expresses his astonishment that with such a source of fever existing within it, the garrison had ever been free from disease. The burial-ground in South Port Ditch was accused of exercising similar influence. Whether these suspicions were well-founded or not, the main causes of complaint have been removed, and the principal burying-place is now on the neutral ground. Charnel-house effluvia occasionally arise from it, and in some instances water has flowed into the graves, which might have afforded similar exhalations on evaporation; but a perpetual current of air—that grand neutraliser of all insalubrious miasmata—renders them innocuous to the inhabitants of the town. The Red Sands, between the Grand Parade and the South Pavilion, were formerly the principal receptacle for the dead. The greater part of these sands are now converted into gardens, and only a very small spot is occasionally used for the graves of officers. The Jews have a burial-ground on Windmill-hill, in a very airy and elevated situation. An old graveyard, now no longer used, is situated on the side of the hill, above the Red Sands; and another of a similar description lies within South Port. Upon the whole, the places of sepulture for Gibraltar afford little cause for anxiety at present. The depositing of bodies within the Spanish church,—which was so common a practice fifty years ago, that Colonel James says, “all the Roman catholics were buried there,”—is now discontinued. Nothing but the quantity of lime thrown over the bodies could have prevented the most dangerous consequences resulting from this practice. It has become so rare to deposit a body in the church, that a thousand dollars were lately paid by the family of a Spanish gentleman for permission to do so. The streets, which were formerly in a most deplorable state, are now well paved, lighted, and cleansed, and extensive improvements are daily going on. Many of the narrow streets have been widened, several alleys entirely removed, and free ventilation promoted by all possible means.

south of Charles V.'s wall, at a point nearly overhanging the old burial-ground in the Red Sands, and about 1,100 feet above the level of the sea. According to tradition, it formerly extended 400 to 500 yards in a southerly direction; and at present it can be explored, without difficulty, 100 to 150 yards. The roof is covered with various kinds of stalactites. In the interior is a large collection of water, which, although continually receiving supplies by distillation from the roof, never overflows.

The promontory is well supplied with water. The aqueduct originally planned by the Moors is a very important work. The present structure was commenced in 1571, after the plan of a Spanish Jesuit, and finished in 1694; the channel begins in the south, and terminates in the centre of the town; the water with which it is supplied filters through the red sand, running through "weep-holes," made of brick, into a reservoir, from whence, after rising to a height of eighteen inches, it is conveyed in earthen pipes to various parts of the town. The aqueduct is chiefly fed by the autumn and winter rains, and also supplied by infiltration from the body of the mountain.

There are numerous tanks and wells for the supply of the garrison; those for the use of the navy, four in number, in the immediate neighbourhood of Rosia Bay (the most extensive), will hold 1,317,120 gallons of water; there are seven other public tanks, capable of containing 235,580 gallons; thus, *one million and a-half* gallons may be always kept in supply. The water flows into the tanks from the roofs of houses, &c., without any purifying process being attempted, except throwing in a few live eels: these devour the animalcule, and are themselves eaten in turn when they get fat. Among the public tanks, one at Europa Flats, called the Nun's Well, is adapted for 100,000 gallons. There are upwards of a hundred private tanks in the garrison, and from twenty to thirty wells, with a depth of from three to twenty-six feet. In fact, the internal parts of the promontory abound with water; and on the neutral ground are numerous wells, which furnish some thousand additional gallons daily to the gardens; 21,000 gallons being drawn in twenty-four hours from a sand apparently as arid as the deserts of Arabia. The wells are formed by sinking a cask in the sand, and letting in one or two more, as may be thought necessary. The supply continues throughout the driest summer, and the close vicinity of the sea

does not seem to exercise any unfavourable influence on the quality of the water.

There are several caverns: one explored by Colonel Drinkwater, in 1789, is thus described by him in the valuable work before referred to:—

"The opening of this cave lies in the face of the perpendicular rock, about 150 or 160 feet above its footing on the eastern side, almost under the Signal House. In enlarging the works of the garrison, chasms and caves of considerable size were constantly thrown open in various parts of the Rock, proving, with our knowledge of St. George's Cave, another at Poca Roca, above the town, and others in many parts of the mountain, that the promontory of Gibraltar must abound with hollows of this description. One had been discovered a short time before on the lines above Landport, in which some very curious petrified bones were found; but none of the late discoveries appeared to be of the same extent as the cavern above-mentioned. A party of officers having provided themselves with the necessary ropes, and being attended by guides, each bearing a candle, and having tinder-boxes distributed among them, proceeded by the Devil's Tower, Catalan Bay, and up the sloping bank of sand behind the Rock to the foot of the precipice, which they were required to ascend before they could enter the mouth of the cavern. This was soon found to be an enterprise of no small danger to persons unaccustomed to such undertakings. With great difficulty, the party, assisted by their attendants, clambered up the face of the Rock to the height of from 150 to 160 feet. The cavern consisted of several chambers or divisions, connected by narrow crevices or funnels, some of which were so small and tortuous as to make the passage rather difficult, obliging the party frequently to creep on all-fours for a considerable distance. In the different chambers, which appeared to be of various dimensions, were numerous stalactite columns, in all degrees of formation; the lower parts of many of them, particularly in the interior, consisted of masses of petrification in pinnacles of various heights, the outsides of which were covered with a most beautiful frothy substance (the first stage of petrification), which, on being rudely touched, dissolved instantly into water. The extreme cavern consisted of two divisions of an oblong form, on the floor of which lay a deep layer of dark vegetable mould, upon which, in various places, were seen the incipient formation of stalactite columns, a small one of which was easily removed by the writer, and with the assistance of one of the attendants, conveyed out of the cavern, but its beauty soon faded on approaching the atmosphere; and before it was lodged in his quarters it had lost much of its original snowy appearance, and was reduced to the size of the petrification of each nuclei of the different pinnacles that rose up from the base of the incipient columns. Without the rope the party would neither have reached the extremity of the cavern, nor found their way back. The advance of the party into the bowels of the mountain (chiefly on a descent) was found to be about forty-four fathoms, measured on the rope; but as this was the direct distance by the nearest angles, their line of march must have extended more than 300 feet. A great number of bats were flying about, and one or two were caught in a torpid state."

GEOLOGY AND SOIL.*—Gibraltar is composed chiefly of a rock of gray, dense, primary marble, the beds or strata of which are of various thickness, from twenty to upwards of forty feet, dipping from east to west at an angle of nearly thirty-five degrees. Although now so far above the level of the sea, the promontory has evidently been at one time submerged beneath the ocean. Pot-like holes are frequent in the solid rock, apparently caused by the attrition of pebbles in a strong current; one of these, 910 feet above the sea, was found to be five feet deep and three in diameter, the brim rounded off as if by art, and the sides and mouth displaying a considerable degree of polish. For three-and-a-half feet downwards, the cavity was filled with an argillaceous earth, thinly mixed with minute particles of transparent quartz crystals; the remaining foot and a-half contained an aggregate of water-worn stones, from the size of a goose-egg to a walnut, comprising the red jasper, yellowish-white flint, white quartz, and blueish-white agates firmly combined with a yellowish-brown stalactitical calcareous spar: in this breccia there was no fragment of mountain rock discoverable, or any other calcareous matter, except the cement which formed the connection. The earth obtained from these cavities is sought by gardeners with great avidity. Testaceous bodies have occasionally been found imbedded in the body of the rock, but they do not form regular strata. Stalactites and stalagmites are to be found in great abundance in the numerous caves, especially in St. Michael's. The further removed from the external air, the brighter they become in colour: near the surface they are of a brownish yellow, and by degrees shade off to a whitish yellow. Upon the western face of the hill strata occur, composed of a number of thin beds of a blackish brown, or ferruginous-coloured earth. The lowermost stratum is about a foot and a-half thick, and rests upon a rock of an argillaceous nature. This stratum consists of quartz of a blackish-blue colour, in the septa or cracks of which are found fine quartz crystals, colourless and perfectly transparent, which are dignified with the name of "Gibraltar diamonds." Not far from the "diamond-bed," but nearer the level of the sea, is a stratum of argillaceous matter, the clefts of which are covered with

dendritical figures of a yellowish-brown colour, resembling landscape painting. In some parts of the western face, towards the south, are found flints of a dirty, sap-green colour, embedded in a dark-red, shining clay.

Around Rosia Bay and the New Mole is found a beautiful breccia, composed of almost every fossil already enumerated, with the addition of two species of marble, the native beds of which have not been discovered in the mountain—the one black, the other olive-green. The breccia is combined by a calcareous cement of a yellowish colour, nearly approaching to orange: it takes a high polish, and the principal houses in the garrison are adorned with beautiful chimney ornaments composed of it.

But the most curious of all the fossil productions of Gibraltar are the bones, which are found in the perpendicular fissures and cavities of the rock, embedded in a calcareous concretion of a reddish-brown ferruginous colour, with an earthy fracture, and considerably indurated. They consist of the remains of various animals, quadrupeds, and birds of different sizes, thrown together without order, and intermixed with the shells of snails, fragments of rock, and bits of spar, which may yet be observed in an uncombined state on the surface. Major Imrie's opinion is, that these substances have been swept off the surface by heavy rains, and carried into the fissures and cavities, which formerly opened to the surface, and have there undergone the permeating action of water, from which, in the course of a long series of years, calcareous matters have been deposited. In some fissures below the King's lines, the concretions have been found to consist of the pebbles of the prevailing calcareous rock, and, in one instance, the bottom of a glass bottle, of singular shape and great thickness, was embedded in it. From a consideration of all the facts, it is denied that petrification has had any share in the production of the osseous breccia. It was supposed that many of the bones were human, as skulls or parts of bones like those of man have been found; and the miners, in forming the excavations to the northward, conceived that they had fallen in with a petrified human skeleton; but the probability is, that the relic in question was that of a monkey. Cuvier, who denies the existence of human bones among these fossil remains, enumerates those of the ox, deer, sheep, rabbit, water-rat, mouse, horse, ass, snakes,

* Dr. Hennen and Major Imrie have paid considerable attention to this subject; and to their observations I am chiefly indebted for the facts enumerated in this section.

and various birds. He found the bones of a ruminating animal of the order Glires, which he conjectures may belong to the genus *Lagomys*.* The chemical analysis of them, instituted by Mr. Hatchett, shows that they consist principally of the phosphate of lime, and that their cavities have been partly filled by the carbonate of lime, the agglutinating properties of which keep them together.

No mineral waters have been discovered in Gibraltar. Near the base of the mountain, on which stands the tower called the "Queen of Spain's Chair," about two miles from the garrison, there are two springs of a chalybeate nature.†

Earthquake shocks have been felt at Gibraltar, and many places bear the indications of volcanic agency. The great earthquake of Lisbon was first observed at the "Rock" on the forenoon of the 1st of November, 1755; it began with a trembling of half a minute, then a violent shock, and went off in trembling: the sea rose every fifteen minutes six feet eight inches, and fell so low that boats and fish were left dry. Similar indications have been since observed at different periods.

The soil is of several kinds; that on which the town is built is red sand, forming the largest bank of arenaceous matter on the west side of the mountain: it consists of small particles of crystallised quartz, colourless, and perfectly transparent paste, but of an ochreous colour in the mass, on account of the red argillaceous earth adhering thereto. On the east side, the sandbank is composed of particles of calcareous rock, the whole being of a whitish-grey colour. To the south of the Red Sands the soil is variegated; in some places a light, loose, fine, and extremely fertile mould exists, becoming, in the rainy season, of a saponaceous sliminess; in others, a stiff marl soil and species of fullers'-earth predominate.

CLIMATE AND DISEASES.—The Andalusian atmosphere is celebrated for its salubrity; and, with some exceptions, the climate of Gibraltar, of late years, has been decidedly

healthy, except for hard drinkers and phlegmatic constitutions. The temperature is warm, the hottest months being June, July, August, and September; and the coldest, December, January, and February. Snow rarely falls, and ice is seen no thicker than a dollar; the mercury ranges from 85° in July, to 50° in January: but the winds and the rain affect the animal frame more acutely than the solar heat. From 1816 to 1827 the greatest height of the barometer was 30 $\frac{2.0}{10.0}$ °; the lowest, 28 $\frac{6.3}{10.0}$ °. Hail occasionally falls with much violence, and is generally accompanied by a thunder-storm, not unfrequently preceded by brilliant lightning, coruscations, and falling stars; and other meteoric phenomena are observable. In 1753, a fire-ball shot over the Rock. In a period of ten years, from 1816 to 1825, the number of rainy days in each month was—January, 91; February, 71; March, 62; April, 101; May, 61; June, 18; July, 4; August, 9; September, 29; October, 57; November, 95; December, 88; total, 686.

The greatest number of rainy days is in April, but the quantity which falls is greatest in January. The heaviest rains are accompanied with south-west winds; those from the south-east are raw, black, and bleak; they are termed "genuine Levanters," and dislodge numerous masses of rock, which roll down the hill with prodigious violence, realising the Portuguese proverb—

"Quando com Levante chove
As Pedras move."

Or, in English doggerel,—

"A rainy Levanter
Makes c'en the stones canter."

The Levanters are generally accompanied with fogs of extreme density, which roll over the Rock and down its sides, depositing considerable quantities of moisture wherever they touch.

The easterly winds are most prevalent in July, August, and September; and the westerly in December, January, and May.‡ It is pro-

* See Cuvier's *Essay on the Theory of the Earth*, translated by Jameson, 8vo; Hatchett, in *Philosophical Transactions*, 1799; and Buckland's *Reliquiæ Diluvianæ*, 4to; London, 1824: p. 148.

† About seven hours' journey eastward from Gibraltar are the baths of Hedionda, situated in the district of Casares, which are much resorted to by the natives for cutaneous complaints, chronic rheumatism, obstinate ulcers, affections of the kidneys and bladder, and the diseases of females. These waters abound in sulphuretted hydrogen gas:

their temperature is 181° Reaumur. From an analysis made by Dr. Colorado of Casares, these waters are found to contain, in fifty pounds weight, six grains of muriate of lime, fifty-six sulphate of magnesia, thirty-five sulphate of lime, ten of magnesia, and four of siliceous earth, independent of a large quantity of sulphur, with which they so much abound, that the peasants make matches by simply dipping slips of linen in the stream. Baths and habitations have been erected at this place.

‡ In 6 years,—222 days more easterly than westerly.

bable, from the observations of Ayala, Mr. Carter, and others, that the easterly winds prevailed formerly more extensively than at present, and that Gibraltar, like other places, has experienced a great change of climate;* how far the temperature and the rains affect the health of the troops in this important garrison, is a point of the utmost importance.

VEGETABLE KINGDOM.—Gibraltar is not the barren rock that has been supposed; Colonel James mentions the names of 310 different trees and plants growing on the promontory. Several fruits are cultivated there, and the vine and fig flourish in exuberance; after rains vegetation is luxuriant. The olive, almond, orange, and lemon thrive; in the naval garden in the south are some noble date trees; the prickly pear runs wild, the aloe abounds, and the palmetto was formerly plentiful. Geraniums of almost every species grow in the utmost profusion, and a great variety of wild and cultivated plants and herbs are found in every part of the mountain. Among the *native* fruits brought to market are seven or eight kinds of grapes, figs, oranges, lemons, pomegranates, almonds, apples, peaches, plums, apricots (called "*Kill Johns*"), cherries, and strawberries; potatoes, cabbages, onions, cucumbers, artichokes, tomatos, peas, kidney beans, spinach, lettuces, radishes, &c., are produced in abundance.

ICHTHOLOGY.—Different kinds of fish may be observed at the market at Gibraltar: in former times the bay was so celebrated for its fisheries of tunny and salmonettas, that coin were struck, in which representations of them were given.

Considerable quantities of the tunny are caught at the present day, both for imme-

diate food, and for exportation, dried, salted, or preserved in oil. The bonito, mackerel, and anchovy are taken in great numbers; the latter, in particular, forming a valuable export to the Genoa market. The *Murena Helena*, so prized by the ancient Romans, that we are told Crassus went into mourning for the death of a favourite one, is here within reach of the poorest individual, and being considered a coarse fish, is not much esteemed. The sepia, or cuttle fish, which is very abundant, forms a delicious article of diet when well washed, deprived of the bone, and properly cooked. The sword-fish is frequently brought to market, and the Gibraltar eels are much prized.

ENTOMOLOGY.—As in other warm climates, the insect tribes are numerous, and the mosquitoes in summer are particularly annoying to new comers. The *lepidoptera*, or caterpillar tribe, are prolific; and grasshoppers overrun the neutral ground. A southerly wind, in 1753, brought from Africa an immense swarm of huge locusts, with brown-spotted wings, red legs, and bright yellow bodies, which, fortunately for the garrison, a sudden change of wind to the east beat into the sea, where they were washed ashore in heaps. On another occasion a swarm of butterflies made their appearance in a similar manner. The moths are large and very beautiful. The domestic annoyances are plentiful.

Animals do not differ from those of the Andalusian provinces, with the exception of monkeys, several families of which have located themselves on the "Rock;" they are probably an importation from Barbary; but they are so extremely wary that it is quite impossible to get near them; even their skeletons are very rarely found.

* For many interesting points relative to the yellow fever of Gibraltar, see an article under that head by Dr. Gilkrest (to whom I am indebted for the preceding facts), in the *Cyclopædia of Practical Medicine*. Among other facts, he cites the opinions of two members of a commission appointed to inquire into the origin of the epidemic of 1828, demonstrating that it was not an imported disease. *Mr. Judge Howell*.—"Upon a careful review of all the proceedings before this Board, I am of opinion that the evidence brought forward has totally failed to prove that the late epidemic disease was introduced from any foreign source, either by the Swedish ship *Dagden*, or by any other means; and I am further of opinion that the late epidemic had its origin at Gibraltar." *Colonel Chapman* (now Major-general Sir Stephen Chapman, governor of Bermuda.)

"Judging from the evidence produced before the Board, the manner in which it has been given, together with the description of persons who have been brought forward as witnesses, I am decidedly

of opinion that the attempts to prove the introduction of the disease, after months of previous inquiry by those who wished to prove it, have totally failed." The epidemics of Gibraltar have not prevailed in the very hottest years, and a cool wind from the north or north-east is so unfavourable to the yellow fever as to shorten its continuance; Humboldt also makes a similar remark respecting cases of the same description at Vera Cruz. Severe visitations have overwhelmed Gibraltar in years remarkable for the fall of much rain, as well as in others in which comparatively little has fallen. The quantity of rain which fell in different years at Gibraltar, was in inches as follows:—in 1791, 25; 1792, 44; 1793, 19; 1794, 22; 1795, 21; 1796, 25; 1797, 64; 1798, 30; 1799, 31; 1800, 42; 1801, 15; 1802, 29; 1803, 42; 1804, 50; 1805, 30; 1806, 39; 1807, 29; 1808, 35; 1809, 31; 1810, 37; 1811, 27; 1812, 40; 1813, 33; 1814, 37; 1815, 28; 1816, 28; 1817, 26; 1818, 24; 1819, 31; 1820, 36; 1821, 35; 1822, 17; 1823, 26; 1824, 20; 1825, 20; 1826, 31; 1827, 23; 1828, 25 inches.

Birds are similar to those on the peninsula; eagles, hawks, and kites build their airy nests in the rocky summits, and are at all times seen hovering about in quest of prey; bats (*vespertilio marinus*) and owls swarm in the caves; and pigeons, poultry, geese, ducks, and red-legged partridges, larks, starlings, thrushes, blackbirds, finches, &c., abound.

POPULATION.—Being considered solely as a garrison, little encouragement has been given to immigrants, or fixed residents. In March, 1753, the inhabitants under permit numbered 1,793; in September, 1854, 1,810, of whom 414 were British, 604 native and Barbary Jews; the remainder Spaniards, Portuguese, Genoese, and various other nations. The succeeding enumerations were—1791, 2,885; 1801, 5,339; 1807, 7,501; 1811, 11,173; 1813, 12,423; 1814, 10,137; 1816, 11,401; 1817, 10,737; 1825, 15,480; 1830, 17,024; 1835, 15,008; 1844 (latest census), *whites*—males, 5,857; females, 6,312; *coloured*—males, 10; females, 3. Total males, 5,867; females, 6,315=12,182. The aliens number 3,641. In 1854, the recorded births were 469; deaths, 491.

ECCLESIASTICAL.—A civil chaplain of the church of England, and a vicar apostolic of the church of Rome: each receive £300 per annum.

EDUCATION.—Military schools, 5: scholars—males, 117; females, 134=255; civilians attending ditto—males, 14; females, 5=19. Church of England schools, 2: scholars—males, 149; females, 51=200. Roman catholic schools, 5: scholars—males, 431; females, 356=787. Wesleyan schools, 3: scholars—males, 179; females, 55=234.

GOVERNMENT.—A general, commanding the garrison, with military control over the inhabitants; his salary of £5,000 per annum is paid from the civil revenue.

REVENUE.—Nearly £30,000 a year, of which £10,000 is derived from a duty on wines and spirits imported; £3,500 from wine and spirit licences; £5,000 from ground and house-rents; remainder from fines, fees, port dues, &c. A local revenue of £3,500 is employed in paving, lighting, and cleansing. Expenditure by Great Britain, in 1854, for military purposes, £155,000.

The shipping, inwards, in 1854, was—number, 3,673; tonnage, 589,560,—manned by 42,121: of these, under the British flag, English—number, 571; tons, 161,465; Colonial—number, 117; tons, 26,063: total—number, 688; tons, 187,528. There are no

custom duties but those levied on wine, spirits, and tobacco. The port dues are—on a ship, £2 3s. 4d.; on a barque, £1 1s. 8d.; on a brig, £1 1s. 8d.

Money.—Spanish currency is still much used. The effective hard dollar=4s. 4d.; the current dollar being estimated at 2s. 3d.; hard dollars=2s. 10½d.; reals and quartos of both hard and current dollars are the same, the former being=4½d., and the latter=1½d. Accounts are kept in current dollars (pesos), divided into eight reals of sixteen quartos each; 12 reals currency=1 cob, or hard dollar, by which goods are bought and sold; and three reals are considered equal to five Spanish reals vellon.

Gold Coins.—A doubloon is sixteen dollars=£3 9s. 4d.; half ditto=£1 11s. 8d.; sixteenth ditto=4s. 4d. **Silver Coins.**—Dollar piece, 4s. 4d.; half ditto, 2s. 2d.; quarter ditto, 1s. 1d.; peseta, 9½d.; eighth of a dollar=6½d.; half peseta=5d.; sixteenth of a dollar=3¼d.; quarter peseta=2½d. There is also a small quantity of British silver coin. **Copper Coin.**—Two-quarter piece=½d.; one ditto, ¼d.; chovy=½d. (Also a quantity of British copper coin.) No paper currency. Rate of exchange on London, at ninety days' sight, varies from 48d. to 49d.

Weights and Measures.—Arrobe, 26 lbs. English=3½ gallons. Five fanegas (strake measure of wheat) or eight Winchester bushels, or two heaped fanegas of Indian corn=4½ bushels. Pipe, 117 gallons=126 gallons English wine measure. The Spanish quintal of 100 lbs.=101¾ lbs. English.

POSITION.—By the possession of Gibraltar, England holds a commanding attitude at the Atlantic entrance of the Mediterranean, and is enabled to dispense with the continued presence of a large maritime force, which she would otherwise be compelled to maintain in the Mediterranean, not only with reference to European relations and antagonisms, but also as regards her Asiatic territories. The "Rock" is also an excellent warehouse and shop for the sale of cottons, woollens, and other commodities: by the establishment of a British dépôt here, neighbouring traders are enabled to supply themselves at all times with the manufactures or other articles of which they may stand in need, devoid of custom duties, or prohibitory tariffs in contiguous states: a double purpose (military protection and mercantile intercourse) is thus served, at a comparatively trifling expense to the British exchequer.

SECTION IX.—MALTA AND GOZO.

LOCALITY, AREA, HISTORY, &c.—Malta, and the adjacent island of Gozo, are situated between Sicily and the African coast, near the entrance of the great bay formed by Cape Bon and Cape Razat; Valetta, the capital, is in $35^{\circ} 54'$ N. lat., and $14^{\circ} 34'$ E. long. Malta was known for more than eighteen hundred years by the name of Melite or Melita: Pliny and Strabo both mention it under this denomination; and there are reasonable grounds for thinking that Melita, and not an islet on the Illyrian shore of the Adriatic, was the site of St. Paul's shipwreck. Whether it was the island mentioned under the appellation of Hyperia (by Homer in the *Odyssey*) and Ogygia, is doubtful. The Phœnicians landed,* it is said, on Malta, about 1519 years B.C., and the navigation of the Mediterranean belonging at this period to that commercial people, they formed a colony there which soon increased in trade and wealth. After being in possession of the island for upwards of seven centuries, the Greeks, B.C. 736, drove out the Phœnicians settled on the island, and called it *Melitas*. Both Phœnicians and Greeks erected extensive buildings, and struck various coins, some of which are still extant. About B.C. 528, the Carthaginians disputed the dominion of Melita with the Greeks, and it was for some time divided between them. The latter were, however, finally compelled to abandon the island to the Carthaginians, under whose sway it attained such opulence as to excite the cupidity and enterprise of the Romans in the first Punic war, when it was plundered by Attilus Regulus, and subsequently seized by Cornelius. The Romans, however, were soon expelled from the island, and only recovered it after the naval victory gained by C. Lutatius, B.C. 242, when a peace was granted to the Carthaginians on the hard condition of surrendering to the conqueror all the islands in their possession between Africa and Italy. The Romans, proud of their acquisition of Melita, took every precaution to gain the attachment of the resident Greek and mixed population, permitted the continua-

tion of their ancient customs, made the colony a *municipium*, and allowed the inhabitants to be governed by their own laws, under a proprietor dependant on the prætorship of Sicily.

The commerce and manufactures of the island were sedulously encouraged: its cotton and linen cloths were then so famed for their fineness and the skill with which they were prepared, as to be regarded at Rome as an article of luxury. Great attention was paid to improving and beautifying the settlement. The merchants and sailors were at this period accustomed to repair to the temples to offer incense to the protecting gods of the island and its trade. On the division of the Roman empire, Malta was ceded to Constantine; but religious dissensions weakened the Romans, in their colonies as well as at home, and left them a prey to the desolating inroads of barbarians. The Vandals seized upon Sicily, A.D. 454, and next took possession of Malta, from whence they were driven, ten years after, by the Goths. Under the Goths and Vandals the commerce of Malta was nearly extinguished, but partially revived under the reign of Justinian, who sent Belisarius to wrest Africa from the Vandals. This celebrated general landed in Malta A.D. 553, and reunited it to the remnant of the empire; but the immunities granted by its former masters were denied: the island became a prey to feuds and dissensions; and for three centuries from the reign of Justinian we are ignorant of the events which mark its history. About A.D. 870, the inhabitants called in the Arabs, but these were driven out in the same year by the Greeks, who remained undisturbed masters for thirty-four years; at the expiration of which period the Arabs again descended in great force, exterminated the Greeks, sold their wives and children for slaves, and established a government dependant upon the Emir of Sicily. To supply the deficiency of taxes, which could not be obtained from the Maltese, the Arabs fitted out piratical cruizers, fortified the city of Notabile, built a fortress on the site of the present castle of St. Angelo, and enriched Malta with plunder acquired on the sea. The Arabs were driven out of Malta, A.D. 1090, by Count Roger the Norman, who

* Whether Malta was inhabited previous to the landing of the Phœnicians, is doubtful: according to tradition, it was originally tenanted by the Phœnicians, a race of giants.

established the popular council, which was composed of clergy, nobles, and people freely elected. The island was afterwards given up to the Germans, on account of the marriage between Constance, heiress of Sicily, and Henry VI., son of the Emperor Frederick Barbarossa. Malta was erected into a county and marquisate; but its trade had been totally ruined, and for a considerable period it remained merely a fortified garrison. For seventy-two years the people were subject to the emperors of Germany; until Charles of Anjou, brother of Louis IX., King of France, on becoming King of Sicily, made himself master of the island. After the horrible massacre, known as the Sicilian Vespers, and its consequent political changes, Malta continued faithful to the French, but was soon conquered by the King of Arragon, who, like the kings of Castile, by whom he was succeeded in 1414, ceded the settlement in fief to some personal favourite or distinguished servant of the Crown. The Maltese at this time beheld themselves twice mortgaged for sums lent to their princes; but, always jealous of their liberty, they made a noble effort to retrieve themselves from this thralldom, by twice paying 30,000 florins of gold (a large sum in those days), for which the island was pawned. King Alphonzo, A.D. 1428, declared that Malta and Gozo should never again be separated from the kingdom of Sicily. Alphonzo further declared the inhabitants warranted in opposing a breach of promise by force of arms.

Charles V., with a view to commanding influence in the Mediterranean, and to the security of the coast of Sicily, took possession of Malta. Willing to save the expense of a garrison, and yet at the same time prevent his European enemies from making a descent on the island, the emperor located there the knights of the order of St. John of Jerusalem, who, newly driven from their principal place of residence, Rhodes, were glad to accept the aid of the powerful prince; and Charles, A.D. 1530, granted them, in perpetual sovereignty, the islands of Malta, Gozo, and the city of Tripoli, under favourable conditions for the Maltese.

The order of the Knights of St. John originated with the hospital of St. John, which existed in Jerusalem from the reign of the Emperor Justinian, and was intended for the accommodation of the crowds of strangers and pilgrims who arrived from all parts to visit the Holy Sepulchre. Its founder, Peter Gerard, a native of Provence, in 1099 A.D., formed an association of a few charitable persons to relieve the sick: these took up their abode in a house distin-

guished by the name of the Hospital of St. John; they were termed the "*Hospital Brothers*,"—were invested with the regular habit of the St. Augustine order, and took the three vows of chastity, obedience, and poverty, before the patriarch of Jerusalem, under whose immediate authority they remained for some time, until Pope Paschal II., by a bull dated February 15th, 1113, appointed Gerard their "provost and guardian," and enfranchised from tithes all lands and donations bequeathed to the Order. By the same bull it was provided that the successor of Gerard was to be freely elected by the Brothers. The second provost, Raymond du Puis, extended the original design from that of nursing and feeding the sick and poor, to that of affording pilgrims and strangers a safe escort from the Holy City to their own homes; the country between Jerusalem and the nearest port of embarkation for Europe, being inhabited by the opponents of Christianity, who used every means to destroy all who bore the name of Christian. The petition of the Hospitallers that they might become a military order, without relinquishing their religious habits, was granted; the patriarch of Jerusalem armed them himself, and received their vows to defend the Holy Sepulchre with the last drop of their blood, and to combat the "infidels" wherever they should meet them. On the conclusion of the ceremony, the Knights of St. John offered their services to the King of Jerusalem, and afterwards, with the Knights Templars, became the principal support of that ruler, always, however, considering themselves as auxiliaries and not as subjects. The Order was now reorganised, the master's assistants formed into a chapter or council, and rules and statutes instituted and sanctioned by the pope. The crusading spirit of the age lent strength, wealth, and lustre to the new Order; donations were bestowed on it from all quarters; and in consequence of the numerous individuals from different countries who joined the association, the knights agreed to divide themselves into seven *languages*. The French having founded the Order, were the most numerous; the three first *languages* being those of Provence, Auvergne, and France; the next four those of Italy, Arragon, England, and Germany. Castile was subsequently added to the original seven languages, and the Anglo-Bavarian was substituted for that of England.

The principal nobility in Christendom joined the association, which was divided into three sections, according to birth, rank, and functions. The first class, the Knights of Justice, was only open to men of ancient and noble descent; the second comprised Religious Chaplains and Priests of Obedience; and the third was composed of Serving Brothers: and so popular did the Order become, that from the highest ranks of society in Europe children were sent to Jerusalem, to be brought up under the tuition of the knights, previous to enlisting under their banners.

The Hospitallers of St. John remained in the Holy Land until 1289 A.D., when they were compelled to follow the fortunes of the Latin Christians, and retreat from Palestine. The knights remained some time at Cyprus; but having captured Rhodes, in 1307, from some Greek rebels and Mohammedan corsairs, the Hospitallers removed thither, and soon began to recover from the depressed state into which they had fallen, and which was as much owing to their fierce contests with the Knights Templars as with the infidels. At Rhodes the

Hospitallers had still to contend with powerful enemies. Bashaw Mischa Palaeologus, a renegade Christian, besieged Rhodes in 1486, with a fleet of 160 ships, and an army of 160,000 men; and after a siege of eighty-nine days, retired with a loss of 9,000 slain and 15,000 wounded. The Turks determined on the expulsion of the knights from Rhodes, and landed on the island, 26th June, 1522, with an army of 150,000 men, which was presently followed by the Emperor Solyman with additional forces. L'Isle Adam, the grand-master, placing himself at the head of 600 knights, supported by 4,500 regular troops, together with some citizen soldiers, resolved to die in defence of his order. Aid from the European sovereigns was sought in vain; the pope and other potentates contented themselves with assurances of good-will and formal prayers on their behalf; nevertheless, the knights stanchly withstood a six months' siege from the overwhelming Turkish army, until, owing to the treachery of one of their own body, their gunpowder was exhausted; and after 80,000 Turks (according to the confession of the Ottomans) had fallen before the besieged, and an equal number had died from sickness, the Janissaries entered the city, and the few knights who had survived this terrible assault, together with 4,000 inhabitants, quitted Rhodes to seek another asylum. A home, after some wandering, was given to these gallant men by Charles V. (October 26th, 1530); and that refuge, as previously remarked, was Malta, then in a state of wretched dilapidation. The new-comers soon changed the face of things; churches, hospitals, and infirmaries were speedily erected; a regular, and indeed handsome city, was built upon a rude and barren rock, and formidable batteries constructed, so as to render their adopted island the strongest place in Christendom.

The income of the Hospitallers at this period, classified according to the national distinction of

languages, is shown in the annexed table, which was transmitted to me, with other valuable documents, by Sir Frederick Ponsonby, the late esteemed governor of Malta. The sums stated can, however, only be regarded as approximative.*

Lauguages.	Number of Com-manderies.	Estimated Value.	Paid into the Public Treasury.
		£	£
France had three:—			
Provence	249	160,340	58,040
Auvergne			
France			
Spain two:—			
Aragon	75	61,517	27,145
Castile			
Portugal	78	55,598	9,187
Italy	192	60,208	23,533
Anglo-Bavaria, including Germany . . .	54	31,319	6,651
Total	618	368,982	124,556

The grand-master was elected by the resident members of the Order, who had the right of voting on the third day after the death of the chief. The eight divisions (according to language) assembled in their respective chapels in the church of St. John, in Valetta, and each named three knights who were to vote for the whole. These twenty-four electors retired into the chamber of the conclave, and named a triumvirate consisting of a knight, a chaplain, and a serving brother of arms, whom they invested with the power of election.† The grand-master had not only a military and regular authority over all the members of the Order, but exercised sovereign power in all its force over his subjects. The legislative authority rested in the council and chapter of the Order, in which the grand-master had only two votes; but he alone could convoke the

* Sir Richard Broun makes the following statement regarding the Order in England:—"On the division of the Order in 1118, the Knights Hospitallers of England, Scotland, and Ireland constituted the sixth language, or nation. This branch of the fraternity, which attained to great power and wealth in these islands, was under the administration of a chapter, composed of the following principal officers:—viz., the turepolverer, or general of the horse and marine guards; the lord grand-prior, the acting chief of the British branch, and capitular bailiff, or lieutenant of England; the lord prior of Torphichen, or bailiff of Scotland; the lord prior of Kilmainham, or bailiff of Ireland; the conservator; the procurator; the grand-crosses; the commanders; the grand-chaplains; the grand-secretary, &c., &c. The grand priory of the sixth language—a magnificent edifice founded by Lord Jordan Brist a little subsequently to 1101—contained a church, an hospital, and inns for the knights, &c. It was situated in the parish of Clerkenwell, London, which is still rich in monuments of the grandeur of the Hospitallers. When the Knights Templars were suppressed in 1307, the whole of their extensive possessions in the British Isles were bestowed on the knights of the sixth language. The Order in England possessed fifty-three commanderies, and in Scotland and Ireland there was scarcely a county in which they did not hold estates. The grand-prior sat in the parliament of England as the premier baron of the realm; and the prior of Torphichen, commonly called Lord Saint John, took his seat as a peer in the meeting of the Scottish estates. The house of Saint John, Clerkenwell, or the grand priory of the sixth language, was dedicated by Heraclius, patriarch of Jerusalem, in the year of our Lord 1185. It was set on

fire in 1381, by the rebels under Wat Tyler, and burnt for seven days; and it was not finally repaired till 123 years afterwards, when the Lord Prior Docwra, in 1504, put the finishing hand to all the various re-erectments which the calamitous event had made necessary. This building, in its widely-varied decorations, both internally and externally, is said to have contained specimens of the arts, both of Europe and Asia, together with collections of books and rarities, the loss of which, in a less turbulent age, would have been a subject of national regret."—(*Knights Hospitallers of St. John of Jerusalem*. London, 1837; pp. 40—43.) Previous to the Reformation in England, the Order enjoyed a considerable income in Great Britain and in Ireland; and there still exists in the British Museum a court-roll of their possessions: Tanner's *Notitia Monastica* also gives information on the subject. Besides the receipts arising from the commanderies, trifling taxes were levied in Malta, chiefly of customs and excise, which, together with the rent of landed property, amounted to about £30,000 a-year. The revenue of the grand-master was about £35,000 a-year, arising from one commandery in each of the priories, and certain monopolies in Malta. The average annual income and expenditure of the treasury of Malta, between the years 1779 and 1788, is stated to have been as follows:—Total income, about £136,141; total expenditure, £126,186.

† The Maltese, a few of whom were members of the Order, were excluded from voting at the election of the grand-master. Besides the three classes, there were persons who were called Brothers de Stage or Donats, and wore the demi-cross, a special distinction given to those who had merited reward by having served faithfully in subaltern situations.

former, and no subject could be discussed in the latter unless first proposed by himself.

The title given him by the King of France was "*Tres cher et tres aimé cousin*;" by other princes, "*Eminentissime Princeps*." The following was the style of all public acts:—"*Dei Gratia Sacre Domus Hospitalis Sancti Joannis Hierosolymitani et Militaris Ordinis Sancti Sepulchri Domini, et Ordinis Sancti Antonii Viennensis Magister Humilis Pauperumque Jesu Christi Custos*."

The Knights of St. John were not long settled in Malta before they rendered good service to Charles V., and indeed to all Europe, by the frequent chastisement and repulsion of the African corsairs. The Turks, in revenge, attacked Malta, but were compelled to retire, not however before they had carried off 6,000 natives from Gozo. Subsequent to this attack, great efforts were made to strengthen the fortifications; Fort St. Elmo was named in commemoration of one of the towers that guarded the entrance to Rhodes, and Fort St. Michael was built upon Mount St. Julien; knights, burgesses, and peasants, relieved each other, by turns, in completing the stupendous works which still exist for the defence of Malta; the prizes taken by the far-famed galleys of the Order contributed to enrich the island, and the grand-master, La Sangle, expended his wealth in adding to its strength and beauty, in gratitude for which, the appellation of Fort St. Michael was then changed for that of Isle La Sangle.

During the administration of grand-master La Valette, who was elected in 1557, Solymán attacked Malta with a Turkish fleet of 159 vessels with oars, containing 30,000 land troops, Janissaries, and Spahis, while a considerable number of store-ships conveyed artillery, horses, &c. The Turks landed at St. Thomas's Creek (Ladderport); La Valette had but 700 knights, and 8,500 regular and militia Maltese soldiers; nevertheless the Turks lost 1,500 men on their first landing. Solymán commenced a vigorous land attack on St. Elmo castle (24th May, 1565), with ten 80-pounders, two culverins (60-pounders), and an enormous basilise carrying stone balls of 160 lbs. weight, to which was added a furious cannonade poured forth from the Turkish ships with long culverins. The castle had but 300 men for its defence. The Turks attempted to storm the ravelins, which cost them a loss of 3,000 men, and the Order lost twenty knights and 100 soldiers: the siege still continued; La Valette cheered the spirits and stimulated the drooping courage of the small band in St. Elmo; at night he sent boats to convey away the wounded, and throw in reinforcements: the Turks persisted in their desperate efforts, and suffered much in their attacks from hoops covered with wool and cotton steeped in brandy and oil, saltpetre, &c., and then thrown lighted on them from the battlements. The bashaws who had charge of the siege, ashamed at the resistance offered by a single castle, determined on a general assault on the 16th June; the night previous to which was spent in one continued and tremendous cannonade, which razed the wall even to the rock on which the castle was built. The Turkish army entered the ditch (now nearly filled up) to the sound of martial music, and the attack commenced with terrific fury on

either side, the Turks being determined to revenge their past defeats, and the knights intent only on the defence of their honour, which was dearer to them than life: the batteries at Fort St. Angelo, La Sangle, and the Burgh (Borgo), poured forth an incessant fire upon the besiegers, and the fiery hoops and combustibles thrown from the walls spread death and terror around. After a contest of six hours' duration, the Turks gave way, with a loss of 2,000 men, while seventeen knights were killed in the breach, and 300 Maltese perished or were disabled. La Valette instantly threw a reinforcement of 150 volunteers into the castle, to prevent which, in future, the Turks cut off all communication between the Burgh and the castle, by means of extensive intrenchments, working for that purpose night and day. On the 21st June another desperate attempt was made against St. Elmo by the whole Turkish army, who were three times repulsed, and as often with sanguinary imprecations returned to the charge; numbers of the knights perished, and the fall of night alone suspended the unequal contest. The heroic defenders, as soon as night closed, sent an expert swimmer across the port, to inform the grand-master of their deplorable situation; five large boats were instantly filled with auxiliaries, anxious to join their wounded and exhausted companions; but all their efforts to reach the castle were fruitless. The beleaguered knights, seeing all relief hopeless, determined to perish in defending St. Elmo: they took the sacrament during the night, and having tenderly embraced one another, returned to their posts to meet the fate which was now inevitable; those whose wounds prevented their walking were carried in chairs to the breaches, and with swords grasped in their feeble hands, felt a death-like and spasmodic energy revive their expiring strength. At day-break the Turks returned to the assault, shouting with the assurance of victory: they were met as before with invincible courage; the Maltese vied with the knights in heroism, and those who were scarcely able to stand continued still to fight. After four hours' assault, there remained but sixty men to defend the breach; L'Amraude, the commanding knight, finding the Turks on the point of forcing it, called to his aid some soldiers, who, till that moment, had been placed on the cavalier before the fort; the bashaw, finding the breach thus reinforced, pretended to retreat, but it was only to gain possession of the cavalier; the besieged took advantage of this respite to bind up their wounds, in order to continue the combat yet a little longer, which the Turks recommenced at eleven o'clock with redoubled fury. The Janissaries having gained the top of the cavalier, made choice of those they wished to destroy; most of the knights were thus slain, and the few remaining soldiers and survivors perished in the breach; the terrible contest ceasing only when not a single knight or Maltese remained alive. The bashaw entered the castle, but found none on whom to wreak his fury; all its noble defenders, namely, 300 knights and 1,500 Maltese, were slain; while he himself had lost 8,000 of the flower of his Janissaries. "What resistance," exclaimed the Turkish commander, looking towards the Burgh and St. Angelo, "may we expect from the parent, when the child, small as it is, has cost us our bravest soldiers!" The barbarous conqueror then caused the breasts of the knights to be cut open, and their hearts torn out, while as a further insult to the Christians, their bodies were placed in the shape of a cross, fastened

* In a military calendar of the Order for the year 1742, it is stated that there were 2,132 knights of justice attached to the Order, and 283 chaplains and brothers of arms. The knights ignored the cardinal principle of Christianity, for they possessed at this time 2,500 slaves.

to planks, and thrown into the sea, that the tide might carry them to the Burgh. La Valette imitated the ferocity of the bashaw, by directing the Turkish prisoners to be put to death; then loading the cannon with the still bleeding heads, he fired them into the enemy's camp.

Throughout the siege of Fort St. Elmo the grand-master never ceased importuning the viceroy of Sicily for his promised supplies, but in vain; yet, though thus apparently abandoned, the knights determined on resistance to the death, and neither gave nor received quarter. The bashaw sent to the Burgh overtures for surrender, but La Valette threatened to hang the envoy should he dare to renew the proposal; and, when the returning Turkish emissary was conducted through the Maltese forces, the different fortifications were pointed out, with the comment—"On these ramparts we mean to surrender to the bashaw, and we reserve the deep trenches to bury therein him and his Janissaries."

The Turks immediately raised nine batteries against La Sangle, St. Michael, and the Burgh; seventy large cannon began to batter in breach, and where the rock was too hard to open trenches, walls of stone and sand were raised; the main effort being directed to block up the castle, so that there should be no external communication either by sea or land. Before, however, the passage by land was entirely closed, forty knights, and some other gentlemen of different nations, favoured by a thick fog, landed in the Black Stone Creek, and safely reached the Burgh. The Turks had from the commencement endeavoured to reduce La Sangle and its castle, which were constantly fired upon from a battery erected on Coradin heights, that commanded both. The besieged in La Sangle being cut off from all communication, except by the sea, the Turks proposed to transport boats by land from Port Marsa-Muscet to the Grand Port, it being impossible for them to pass any other way except under the batteries of Fort St. Angelo, which would have immediately sunk them. A deserter from the Turks revealed this daring plot, and the besieged took new precautions to defend the coastline of their works. Above all things it was necessary to guard the walls of Fort St. Michael; a stockade was therefore constructed from the Coradin rock to the end of the island, by fixing stakes in the sea, fastened together by iron rings, and a long chain.

Where the water was too deep, or the bottom of the rock too hard to drive in the stakes, the object was attained by nailing together long sail-yards and masts of ships. Other stockades were made to prevent the enemy coming near the coast: the whole of the works being carried on by night, when the Turkish artillery had ceased to play upon the batteries. At the end of nine nights the bashaw was astonished to see such efficient defences raised to the passage of his boats and the landing of the troops: he sent, therefore, during the darkness, some good swimmers, with hatchets in their girdles, to cut down the palisades. The noise thus made warned the garrison, but finding the shot from above did not reach the Turks, some Maltese seamen threw themselves into the water, with swords between their teeth,—swam to the stockades, and repulsed their assailants with considerable loss. The Turks next day returned to the charge, and fastened cables and ropes to the palisades, which were almost instantly cut across by the Maltese swimmers. These singular contests were then laid aside, and the whole power

of the Turkish batteries directed towards effecting a breach in the advanced works of the Burgh and Fort St. Michael: however, when this had been accomplished, the bashaw was unwilling to attempt to storm until reinforced by the arrival of Hascen, the viceroy of Algiers, who landed with a strong body of well-trained soldiers.

The Algerines were commanded by the young son of Barbarossa, who, despising the castles, entreated to be suffered to carry them at once sword in hand: the permission was given,—a destructive fire was opened from the Turkish batteries; their slaves, &c., conveyed a number of galleys across Mount Sciebarra and Marsa-Muscet post, and these when afloat, were manned by the Algerines, and commanded by an able Greek renegade named Candelissa. Two thousand picked Turkish soldiers joined the Algerine storming party, which advanced, preceded by Mohammedan priests with the Koran in their hands, imprecating the curses of heaven on the Christians, and promising eternal rewards to all who should fall in the praiseworthy occupation of accomplishing their destruction. The object of the Algerines was to make a bridge of the stockades: for this purpose they brought planks, which, however, proved too short to reach the shore. The Maltese batteries poured destruction on the boats of their antagonists, one volley alone killing 400 Turks. Again and again the Moslems, urged by religious fanaticism, returned to the attack; the Algerines at length reached the shore, where they met death in various forms, until Candelissa, their general, seeing them stagger and inclined to retreat, ordered the boats to a distance, that flight might be impossible. Despair came to the aid of fanaticism; the intrenchments were approached with escalating ladders, and after a sanguinary contest of five hours, the Algerines reached the top of the intrenchment, and planted thereon seven standards. The knights, though reduced to a very small number, no sooner perceived the banners of Islam floating on their batteries, than they returned to the contest with renewed energy, and being aided by a body of resolute pikemen, which the grand-master had sent to their assistance, charged the Algerines and Turks with a fury which nothing could withstand: the standards were soon gained and uprooted; their defenders driven sword in hand from the tops of the rampart over the parapets, those who escaped from the pike and sabre perishing in the fall. Candelissa, who had hitherto fought bravely, gave up all for lost, and left his gallant followers to maintain a running fight, which they did until a party of the garrison, incensed at their resistance, rushed out of a casemate, and put to death all who were unable to reach the boats, where, indeed, death awaited them from the batteries above.

In vain the discomfited besiegers threw themselves at the feet of their conquerors; they received no other answer than "*St. Elmo!*" and out of 4,000 chosen troops, scarcely 500 remained, the greater part of whom were desperately wounded. During this attack the Order lost 160 knights and secular gentlemen; among the former was the son of the viceroy of Sicily. Carnage no less dreadful than that above narrated took place at another assault made on the breaches caused by the Turkish artillery on the side next Burmola and the castle of St. Michael; and there also the assailants were repulsed. The bashaw, regardless of what amount of life he sacrificed, so that Malta were reduced, resolved to

harass the knights by constantly renewed attacks. When the contest had lasted five hours, the Algerines were replaced by some Janissaries, recently sent by the Grand Seigneur for the express purpose of destroying the "Hospitaliers of St. John." With these fresh troops the jaded and almost exhausted knights were compelled to renew the fearful struggle; but the chosen Janissaries were repelled, though at the cost of forty knights and 200 soldiers. Such repeated losses must, it was considered, eventually extirpate the knights. A sort of raised bridge was constructed for the besiegers to renew the assault; twice during the night the besieged vainly attempted to burn it, and a similar effort by day cost the lives of La Valette's nephew, and several other brave men; however, a well-directed cannonade at last accomplished the destruction of this singular piece of mechanism. The bashaw, fearing the Grand Seigneur might attribute these continued failures to some fault in his proceedings, called an extraordinary council of war, in which it was resolved that he (Mustapha), in conjunction with the viceroy of Algiers, should continue to storm La Sangle—that Admiral Pilai should besiege the Grand Burgh and the castle of St. Angelo, and that Candelissa should remain at sea with eighty galleys to prevent any relief from without. In pursuance of this resolution, the Turkish artillery kept up a constant fire according to the posts allotted them; and on the 2nd August the bashaw attempted to storm Fort St. Michael: the contest lasted six hours, but after five different attacks, the Turks were repulsed. After an interval of five days, another assault took place, which lasted four hours. On this memorable occasion, by way of deceiving the besiegers, a feint was made to attack the Castle bastion: the Janissaries then advanced to the real assault, mounting the intrenchments over the dead and dying bodies of their comrades; the Christian women, and even their children joined in the defence: some were employed in conveying refreshments to their husbands, fathers, and relatives; others carried stones and earth to repair the breaches; and many boldly mixed among the combatants, throwing fireworks, melted pitch, and boiling water and oil into the middle of the Turks, who destroyed many of these heroic females.

The bashaw, sabre in hand, headed his troops: he even slew, with his own hand, two Janissaries, who, pressed by the knights, had thrown themselves from the top to the bottom of the breach; but at the very moment when the grand-master trembled for the safety of the fort, Mustapha sounded a retreat, in consequence of the governor of the old city having made a sally, and obtained possession of the Turkish hospital, which he pillaged and burnt. Those who were fortunate enough to escape fled to Mustapha, declaring that their enemies were the advanced guard of a body of Sicilian troops, who they alleged had just landed; the bashaw, therefore, fearing the effect of a panic among his men, drew off from the attack to meet the imaginary enemy.

Throughout the month of August the Turks continued almost daily these terrific attacks; and nothing but the testimony of contemporary historians could persuade posterity that such a handful as the Christians were now reduced to, could have withstood the furious assaults of thousands. Simultaneous attacks were made by the bashaw and admiral; and on one of these occasions (20th August), Mustapha advanced at the head of 80,000

men, the greater number armed with ball-proof morions, which reached as low as the shoulders; these, however, were thrown aside by the wearers, and the usual repulse followed. Extensive mining operations were undertaken with the intention of blowing up the whole of the fortress; but while making preparations for a final storm, the viceroy of Sicily arrived on the island with reinforcements, and the Turks after one battle, precipitately raised the siege and fled to their ships, leaving 25,000 of their bravest troops among the dead. Thus ended the siege of Malta, in which 260 knights, with more than 7,000 soldiers, sealed with their blood the independence of the Knights of St. John.

The intelligence of the raising of the siege spread joy throughout every Christian community. Festivities took place in Sicily, Italy, Spain, &c., and numerous presents and congratulations were showered on La Valette and his brave band. It became, however, a serious question whether the knights should abandon Malta: they and their followers were now reduced to scarce 600 men, the greater part of whom were wounded; yet La Valette declared, sooner than seek safety in flight, he would bury himself in the ruin which Solyman, with a new and formidable fleet, was threatening to accomplish. By a daring plan, however, which has never been fully explained, the arsenal at Constantinople was burned, together with a great number of vessels, destined for Malta; and thus the knights received a respite which enabled them to commence the reconstruction of their fortifications.*

It was at this period that the city of La Valette was built, with the aid of the princes of Europe: the Pope promised 15,000 crowns; the King of France, 140,000 French livres; Philip II. granted 90,000 French livres; the King of Portugal, 30,000 crusadoes; and most of the distant knight commanders contributed property, and stripped themselves of their valuables, which they generously forwarded to La Valette, who founded a well-planned capital, 28th March, 1566.

At the battle of Lepanto, in 1571, the Turks lost 30,000 men; 5,000 officers and soldiers were taken prisoners, with 140 galleys, independent of those sunk or burnt: the Maltese, as usual, behaved with distinguished gallantry.

Under the sway of Vignacourt, in 1601, the Order took part with the defendants, during the attacks upon Patras, Lepanto, Mahometa (on the coast of Africa), the island of Largo, Fort de Laiazzo, Coriuth, &c. Repeated successes in these quarters induced the Turks again to menace Malta, but after landing 5,000 men, they were compelled to make a precipitate retreat.

In 1603 the Hospitaliers resolutely withstood an infringement of their rules. Charles de Brie, an illegitimate son of Henry Duke

* For details of this celebrated siege, and other circumstances connected with its gallant defenders, see Boisségelin's *History of the Knights of St. John*.

of Lorraine, desired to become a knight of the German order; but though the emperor himself endeavoured to compel his admittance, it was successfully resisted. In 1616, Vignacourt, among other useful works—such as the fortifying of St. Paul's Cove, the ports of Marsa-Sirocco, Marsa-Scala, and the island of Comino,—caused the aqueduct to be erected which supplies La Valetta with water.*

In 1630, a grand chapter was held, and new ordinances framed: not the least remarkable or praiseworthy of these, was that which decreed the severest punishment against any of the knights who should engage in duelling. In 1669 the Maltese, apprehending that peace being now concluded between the Venetians and Turks, the latter would essay to revenge on Malta the injury inflicted during the late war, caused the Cotoner fortifications to be erected, new works added to La Floriana, Fort Ricasoli to be erected, St. Elmo almost entirely rebuilt, and St. Angelo improved. A more terrible and irresistible foe, the plague, visited Malta, and committed great ravages. A lazaretto was built at Port Marsa-Musceit.

Charles II. of England, being at this period at war with Tripoli, the knights, despite the sequestration of their property in England and Ireland by Henry VII., opened their ports and arsenals to the English navy, and furnished supplies of provisions and ammunition for the crew and ordnance. Charles courteously acknowledged this generous conduct by the following letter to the grand-master:—

"Carolus II. Dei Gratia Magnæ Britannię, Francię, et Ibernię, Rex, Fidei Defensor, Eminentissimo Principi Domino Nicolao Cotoner, Magno Ordinis Melitensis Magistro, Consanguineo et Amico nostro Charissimo, salutem.

"Eminentissime Princeps, Consanguinee et Amice noster Charissime,

"Non solum per litteras Joannis Narbrough Equitis auri, quem classibus nostris in mari Mediterraneo admirabili jure ac potestate præfecimus, sed aliunde quoque intelleximus, quam benigne Eminentia Vestra, vestroque jussu et exemplo totus Sacre Ordo Melitensis illum, aliosque navium nostrarum bellicarum rectores tractaverit, ita ut domi et in armamentariis nostris melius quam in portu vestro Melitensi haberi non possent. Magnę quidem hoc est amicitię indicium, eoque majoris, quod regna et maria nostra ab usitata Sacri Ordinis Melitensis navigatione tam longe distent, ut Eminentię Vestrę humanitati in hac parte respondendi,

* According to Maltese measurement, the aqueduct was 7,178 cannes in length: a canne = 8 palmes; a palme = 9 inches.

rarissimę nobis occasione expectandę sint. Alius igitur modus exquirendus est, quo gratitudinem nostram et affectum erga Eminentiam vestram sueque sacre Militię socios pro merito notificemus. Quod ut faciamus, omnes opportunitates quandoque obvenerint, libentissime amplectemur, studiosissime prosequemur. Eminentiam interim vestram totumque Ordinem Melitensem Dei optimi maximi tutelę ex animo commendamus. Dabunter in Palatio nostro Whitehalli, die 26 Januarii, 1676."

In May, 1698, Peter I. of Russia, in pursuance of his sagacious policy, sent a grand embassy to Malta, under Keremetz, ostensibly to pay his respects to the famous heroes of the church militant, but in reality to obtain their aid against the Turks.

During the early part of the 18th century, Malta made great efforts against the Barbary and Algerine corsairs, &c., and the safety of the commerce of the Mediterranean was mainly owing to the bravery and skill of the seamen of the knights' galleys. The inherent evils of slavery were manifested in the island during the grand-mastership of Emanuel Pinto de Fonseca, when 4,000 African slaves conspired to murder and poison the knights; but the plot was happily arrested on the eve of execution, being discovered by means of a drunken brawl between a negro, a Persian, and a Jew.

An insurrection occurred in 1775, with the motive, as some say, to obtain sovereign power for the pope: according to others, Catherine II. of Russia was intriguing for the possession of the island. Fort St. Elmo was surprised by three or four hundred persons; but in consequence of a convention between the Maltese and the Order, it was soon recaptured, and tranquillity restored. To guard against the recurrence of such an event, a regiment, consisting of natives and foreigners, officered by the knights, was raised for duty in the city of Valetta and the different ports, while a corps of 1,200 men, entirely Maltese, was organised for the defence of the country and coasts. On the occasion of the earthquake in Calabria and Sicily, in 1783, the "Hospitallers" displayed the energetic charity of their valiant ancestors,—fitted out their galleys at midnight, and afforded effectual succour to the perishing inhabitants around Messina and Reggio.

The French revolution inflicted a fatal blow on Malta. The republicans looked with wistful eyes on the neat and well-kept farms and estates of the Order, situated in various parts of France, which several centuries of good management had greatly improved; and measures were taken for the sequestration

of their property. In the first National Assembly the order of St. John of Jerusalem was treated as a foreign power, possessing property in France, and as such, liable to the taxes imposed throughout the country: the appearance of justice was thus preserved. The next blow was a decree of the Legislative Assembly in reference to equality, declaring that every Frenchman who was a member of the order of knighthood, which required proofs of nobility, could no longer be regarded as a French citizen. The third act was the mandate of the 19th September, 1792, which determined that the Order of Malta should be entirely annulled, and all its property annexed to the demesnes of France!* This decree had no sooner passed than the estates were seized, the houses of the commanders ransacked and plundered, the knights hunted down like wild beasts, and many of them thrown into loathsome dungeons, in cruel mockery termed places of "public safety," where the axe of the executioner remained suspended over their heads. Nevertheless, the knights remained neutral during the revolutionary wars in which the French nation was engaged. A temporary aid was afforded by the restoration of their property in Poland by the Emperor of Russia, who became protector of the Order; but the sequestration of their property in Spain and Italy, was a final blow to their strength and independence.

At the congress of Rastadt, the French professed the most pacific intentions towards Malta, but secretly essayed its forcible occupation: intriguing emissaries proceeded to the island; and efforts were made to sow dissension among the different classes of the inhabitants. Buonaparte, knowing the strength of the place, sent Admiral Brueys with a fleet of eighteen sail of men-of-war thither, preceded by a 60-gun ship and a xebec, which approached Fort St. Elmo, pretending a leak, and requested permission to enter and repair in a neutral port at amity with the republic. The request was unsuspectingly granted, and the ship remained eight days, apparently refitting, but really reconnoitring and sounding in boats the harbour and coasts around. The admiral having ascertained that the forts were well

manued and provided with artillery, thought it prudent to depart; previously, however, thanking the grand-master for his friendly conduct, and assuring him of the pacific intentions of the French government: the minister of marine at Paris also returned official thanks on the occasion; but within a very few months the Directory shamelessly declared that Malta had been regarded as the enemy of France ever since the year 1792. On the evening of the 6th of June, the first division of the French fleet appeared off Malta: the knights prepared for defence; the French expressed their surprise that any alarm should be felt; while at the same time secret emissaries† were spreading the elements of disaffection and distrust throughout the island. On the 9th the remainder of the grand army and fleet destined for Egypt, appeared under Buonaparte, who immediately sent to the grand-master (Hompesch) to demand the free entry of all the ports for the whole of the fleet and convoy! This of course would have been a virtual surrender of the island, and was at once refused. The designs of Buonaparte were now evident, and preparations were made for defence, but the treachery of several of the knights, the consequent tumults and dissension among the people, together with the indecision and incapacity of the grand-master, rendered resistance hopeless; and while the defenders of an impregnable fortress were fighting amongst themselves and slaying each other, Buonaparte, by a mere display of force, became master of the island. The following were the terms of the capitulation, every condition of which was almost immediately violated by the French.

Article 1. The knights of the order of St. John of Jerusalem shall give up the city and forts of Malta to the French army: at the same time renouncing in favour of the French republic, all right of property and sovereignty over that island, together with those of Gozo and Comino.

2. The French republic shall employ all its credit at the congress of Rastadt, to procure a principality for the grand-master for life, equivalent to the one he gives up; and the said republic engages to pay him in the meantime an annual pension of 300,000 French livres, besides two annuities of the pension, by way of indemnification for his personals. He shall also be treated with the usual military honours during the whole of his stay in Malta.

3. The French knights of the order of St. John

French soldiers on board, disguised as sailors, were sent into the harbour as if laden with grain, but having beneath arms and ammunition for the supply of the disaffected, who it was hoped would join the French. The Maltese, however, though dissatisfied with the knights, declined alliance with their enemies.

* Probably this confiscation was accelerated from the Order having listened to the application of Louis XVI. for pecuniary aid, and having sent that monarch, previous to his flight to Varennes, bills for 500,000 French livres.

† Pretended Greek galleys, with experienced

of Jerusalem, actually resident in Malta, if acknowledged as such by the commander-in-chief, shall be permitted to return to their own country, and their residence in Malta shall be considered in the same light as if they inhabited France. The French republic will likewise use its influence with the Cisalpine, Ligurian, Roman, and Helvetic republics, that this third article may remain in force for the knights of those several nations.

4. The French republic shall make over an annual pension of 700 French livres to each knight now resident in Malta for life, and 1,000 livres to those whose ages exceed sixty years. It shall also endeavour to induce the Cisalpine, Ligurian, Roman, and Helvetic republics to grant the same pension to the knights of their respective countries.

5. The French republic shall employ its credit with the different powers, that the knights of each nation may be allowed to exercise their right over the property of the Order of Malta, situated in their dominions.

6. The knights shall not be deprived of their private property either in Malta or in Gozo.

7. The inhabitants of the islands of Malta and Gozo shall be allowed, the same as before, the free exercise of the catholic, apostolical, and Roman religion: their privileges and property shall likewise remain inviolate, and they shall not be subject to any extraordinary taxes.

8. All civil acts passed during the government of the Order, shall still remain valid.

The forces belonging to the Order before the capitulation, consisted of 200 French knights, ninety Italian, twenty-five Spanish, eight Portuguese, four German, and five Anglo-Bavarian: total, 332,—of whom fifty were disabled by age and infirmities. The Maltese regiment, 700 men; the grand-master's guards, 200; battalion belonging to the men-of-war, 400; ditto of galleys, 300; old gunners, 100; militia embodied as chassours, 1,200; sailors belonging to the men-of-war who acted as gunners, 1,200; militia, 3,000; total, 7,100. The militia might be increased to 10,000—all Maltese capable of bearing arms. Against this force Buonaparte might well have been astonished that his triumph had been so bloodless, the greatest quantity shed being that of the knights who perished during a massacre by the Maltese, which I am informed* was caused by the discovery of the treachery practised by certain of the knights in delivering over the place to the French,—by causing the cartridges distributed to the soldiery to be filled with charcoal, slightly topped with gunpowder; in support of which, it is added that they openly used tricoloured cockades, flags, &c. It seems certain that the bravery of the knights had become at this period nearly extinct; that they had grown sensual and indolent, and that they retained

little of their original character beyond the name and certain ceremonies—the husk, not the kernel, of a time-honoured institution.

The disciples of liberty and equality were no sooner in possession of Malta, than they commenced destroying everything which bore any stamp of nobility; beautiful statues and paintings, which had escaped the ravaging hand of centuries, were mercilessly broken and burnt, because they recorded the chivalrous deeds of an “*ancienne noblesse*.” One of the first acts of the conquerors of Malta, and in violation of the treaty of capitulation, was an order for all the knights to quit the island in three days. On the second day, Buonaparte sent a general press-gang into every port of the island, and all the sailors, the grand-master's guards, and the enrolled soldiery, &c., were compelled to go on board the French fleet, leaving their families in a state of utter destitution. The third step was the seizure of such private property belonging to the grand-master and knights, as might be made to contribute towards defraying the expenses of the municipal government, or enrich the new authorities.

Buonaparte quitted Malta on the 19th June, 1798, leaving a garrison of 4,000 men in the island, under General Vaubois, and carrying away with him whatever ornaments in gold or silver could readily be obtained from the public edifices and churches.

When the Maltese learned the intelligence of the total destruction of the French fleet at Aboukir, a hope of destroying the invaders (now strengthened to 6,000 by the remnant that escaped from Egypt) arose, and five days after an insurrection broke out. On the 2nd September, 1798, some French officers were dispatched to Città Veechia (the old capital of the island before Valetta was built, and distant from it about seven miles), and while they were employed in removing certain articles from one of the churches, the people assembled, fell upon them, put to death the commander, and the whole detachment afterwards met the same fate. This was the signal for a general rising; and such was the resolution and enthusiasm of the people, that almost unaided by arms or ammunition, they obliged the French troops to shut themselves up in Valetta. The principal leaders of the Maltese were the Canon Caruana (subsequently Bishop of Malta), Signor Vincenzo Borg, of Bircarcara, and Signor Vitale.

* By N. Mitrovitch, a Maltese gentleman.

The garrison of Valetta consisted of between four and five thousand regular troops, besides the crews of two frigates and a line-of-battle ship; in all amounting to above six thousand men. The French made several sorties, but were repulsed by the Maltese, who kept them closely blockaded. On the 18th September the Portuguese fleet, under the Marquis di Rizza, appeared off the island, and the Maltese chiefs having immediately concerted with the admiral, he supplied them with a few muskets and some ammunition. On the 24th September, a part of the English fleet, returning from Egypt under Sir James Saumarez, appeared off Malta; as did also Lord Nelson, on the 21th of October. The English furnished the Maltese inhabitants with 1,500 muskets and some ammunition, and left with them Sir Alexander Ball, who was chosen by the people as president of the National Council, to which they then gave the name of Congress. For the long period of sixteen months, the Maltese continued to blockade Valetta, without any support from foreign auxiliaries, inflicting loss and disgrace whenever the French troops attempted to make a sortie from the walls; and General Vaubois truly remarked, that "no trace of the former docile character of the islanders remained; they combated like enraged lions." In December, 1799, a small body of British troops (1,300), under General Graham, afterwards Lord Lynedoch, and two Neapolitan battalions (900), arrived to the rescue.

The blockade continued until the 4th September, 1800, when the French being quite exhausted,* surrendered to General Pigot, who had taken the command of the troops of the siege.†

On the departure of the French, the British provisionally occupied Valetta, and

* The garrison was reduced to such extremity during a strict blockade, exceeding two years, that the horses and mules were killed for the use of the sick in the hospitals. Those of the inhabitants who had interest enough in the medical department to obtain for invalid members of their families a small portion of liver, or other viscus, thought themselves fortunate. A flight of quails passing over Valetta, enabled General Vaubois, with the aid of a good cook, to furnish the commissioners who were sent in to treat for the surrender, with an excellent dinner of two courses, of what they supposed to be every variety of meat. After the capitulation was completed, some surprise was expressed at the French general's table being supplied with such a variety of excellent dishes, at a time when it was believed the resources of the garrison were reduced

Sir A. Ball administered the government of Malta as civil commissioner.

By the treaty of Amiens it was proposed to restore Malta to the knights of St. John of Jerusalem, but only on condition that the Maltese should be allowed to form a language of the Order without proofs of nobility being required, together with other privileges not before enjoyed.

The re-establishment of the order of St. John of Jerusalem was strongly opposed by the Maltese, who sought the blessing of free institutions, and the revival of their ancient commercial opulence, under the protection of Great Britain: indeed, the advisability of perpetuating the ancient institution, under the altered circumstances of the age, was more than doubtful.

The proposed restoration was not effected, though Russia was very desirous, as well as France, that such should have been the case: indeed, St. Petersburg had been the headquarters of the knights since their expulsion from Malta. Napoleon made the non-restoration of Malta one of the chief causes for breaking the treaty of Amiens; but no stipulation of the kind had been included in the terms of surrender. The island became a portion of the British empire, not merely by conquest, but by the voice of the Maltese themselves, who, by their bravery, showed themselves fully entitled to vest the sovereignty of their country in those who possessed their confidence, and were capable of affording them efficient aid.

PHYSICAL ASPECT.—Malta, the most southerly island in Europe,‡ is in the parallel (Valetta observatory) of 35° 53' N., and in the meridian of 14° 30' 35" E. of Greenwich. The shape is an irregular oval, and has been compared by some to a fish—its southern surface resembling the back, the Bay of Marsa-Sirocco the mouth, the various indentations on the north aspect to a moderate allowance of bread only. The general then confessed that they were chiefly indebted for such good fare to the fortuitous accident of some quails being taken on the terraces that day, which, with some tame rabbits, formed the only animal food on the table.

† Lord Carylfort, in a letter to Lord Elgin, dated Berlin, 29th November, 1800, states, that the French offered Malta to Russia a short time previous to its capitulation. The refusal of England to give up Malta to Russia, was the main cause of the latter laying an embargo on English vessels in 1800. The Muscovites have long coveted a position in the Mediterranean.

‡ The island was formerly placed by all geographers in Africa, but was declared to be in Europe by a British act of parliament.

the ventral fins, and the deep indentation of the Bay of Melleha, with a corresponding configuration at the back of the island, the tail; the land stretches east and west, and is much broken by bays and inlets of the sea on the side which lies parallel with the coast of Sicily, while that which faces the African coast is nearly a continuous curve.

The extreme length of Malta is stated by Dr. Hennen at eighteen to twenty miles, and its greatest breadth from north to south, ten to twelve miles; circumference, sixty to seventy; but a chart of the islands under the British Crown, furnished me from the Colonial Office, makes the extreme length sixteen and three-quarter miles, extreme breadth nine, and the area ninety-five square miles. The same document gives Gozo (the island adjacent to and dependent on Malta) nine and three-quarter miles in extreme length, five and one-third in breadth, with an area of twenty-seven square miles. Malta is distant from Cape Passaro, the nearest point of Sicily,* fifty-six miles, and from Cape Bon, the nearest point of the African continent, nearly two hundred miles. It is bounded on the east by the island of Candia; on the west by the islets of Pantelleria, Linosa, and Lampedusa; on the north by Sicily, and on the south by Tripoli. The sea dividing Malta from Sicily is only eighty fathoms deep in the middle or deepest part; very shallow in other places, with a sandy bottom: it is called the Canal of Malta, and is generally rough, with strong currents setting through it on the N.W. side towards the E.S.E., and on the E.S.E. side towards the E. Gozo Isle, originally known under the name of "*Gaudos*" by the Greeks, "*Gaulum*" by the Romans, and by corruption in the Arabic language, "*Gaudese*," which in process of time was Italianised into Gozo (pronounced Godso), is situate about three miles to the westward of Malta. In the channel lies the small islet of Comino, formerly called "Hephos-tia," of an oblong shape, and about five miles in circumference, with a still smaller

islet or rock called *Cominetto*, off its north-west extremity. Malta, comparatively speaking, is low, the highest land being but 1,200 feet above the level of the sea, and undiscernible by the mariner until within twenty to thirty miles of the shore. The surface is much diversified with hill and dale; and the natural industry of the Maltese has converted an apparently barren rock into a picturesque country. As a general feature, it may be observed that the island is furrowed with valleys running from south-west to north-east, parallel to each other, and becoming longer and deeper as they extend from the eastern and western extremity. One, termed Melleha, nearly divides Malta into two parts; the most fertile, however, is the vale, which forms at its lowest extremity the port of Valetta.

A small range of hills and craggy rocks, called the Ben Jemma Hills, bearing a north-west direction from Valetta, stretch across the entire breadth of the island, and from these different spurs branch off, giving variety to the landscape. The southern shore consists of high or shelving rocks, destitute of any creeks or ports where a landing could be effected. To the east there is the port of Marsa (which Arabic word signifies port or harbour) Scaia, and towards the south-west that of Marsa-Sirocco, capable of containing a great number of vessels. On the west there are two bays, called Antifaga and Magiarro.

The port of St. Paul is on the coast opposite Sicily, and is so called from a tradition that the vessel in which the great apostle was sent prisoner to Rome was driven in thither by a storm. St. George's Port, towards the north, is not far distant from that of St. Paul: St. Julian's Bay is on the same shore.

Directly facing Cape Passaro are the two largest havens; that to the left termed Marsa-Musciet, in the midst of which is a small island where quarantine is performed; the other, situate to the east, is called the Great Harbour.† These two are separated by a tongue of land, on which the city of

* The following, according to Captain Smyth, are the bearings and distances between several points on the south coast of Sicily and Malta:—From Cape Passaro to Valetta, south 33° 14' west, 56 miles; Alicata to ditto, 21° 55' east, 75½ miles; Terra Nova to ditto, 10° 46' 70 miles; Girgenti to ditto, 30° 43', 90 miles; Sciacca to ditto, 35° 51', 118 miles; Cape Granitola to ditto, 42° 32', 136 miles; Marcimino to ditto, 42° 15', 173 miles.

† The following are the measurements of some of

the principal points between Valetta and the Grand and Quarantine harbours. The mouth of the great harbour between Ricasoli and St. Elmo, from shore to shore, 435 yards; between Fort St. Angelo and the Marina of Valetta, from St. Angelo Point to the shore below the statue of Neptune, 350 yards; between Isola Point and the custom-house, 360 yards; between Corradino Point and the Marina, from the ordnance store to the guard-house, 442 yards; between the church of the Capuchin convent

Valetta is built, the extreme point having on it the castle of St. Elmo, which defends the entrance of both ports. Projecting into the Great Harbour are two parallel points of land, shaped somewhat like two fingers: on one is built the castle of St. Angelo, nearest the entrance of the port, with the Burgh (*Il Borgo*) to the eastward; on the other equally small peninsula is the fortress of La Sangle, which divides the Galley Port from the French Port. Fort St. Michael is on the land side, and defends the two havens of La Sangle. Città Vittoriosa, or Borgo, is built on the same point of land as the castle of St. Angelo, but separated from it by a wet ditch. It has a line of works on its land front, extending from the Galley Port to Calcara Bay. La Sangle, or Isola, on the other point or finger, has its land front covered in a similar manner to that of Vittoriosa, by a line of works extending from the Galley Port to the French Port. More in the rear of La Sangle than St. Angelo is Cospicua, or Burmola, commanded by St. Margaret's-hill, on which is a fort of the same name, and covered to the eastward by a continued line of works, called Fiorenzola. Still further in the rear, and forming a crescent, joined at either end to La Sangle and St. Angelo fortifications, are the strong Cottoner lines, consisting of a succession of bastions without any advanced works, the erection of which was contemplated, but not effected. By sweeping round the French Port to Calcara Bay, towards the interior of the country, a considerable space is left in front of the St. Margarita lines, which would afford shelter to the inhabitants in the event of attempted invasion. The two points of land which jut out to meet the promontory on which St. Elmo castle is built, are also strongly fortified. One, Fort Ricasoli, which is very large, in conjunction with Fort St. Elmo, completely defends the entrance of the Great Harbour; the other, Fort Tigné, protects Marsa-Musciet harbour, which is further guarded by Fort Manoel, built on the quarantine island above adverted to. Fort Manoel is well and regularly built, has five bastions, a half-moon, and a covert-way: it is mined.

In addition to these powerful works, Va-

letta is effectually protected on the southward or land side, where the neck of the peninsula joins the main, by the fortifications before mentioned as *La Floriana*—a line of works extending from the Great Port to that of Marsa-Musciet, and in advance of which, on the side near the Great Port, there is a crowned hornwork, with a covered way. The Floriana includes five successive lines, any one of which, well manned, would suffice for all ordinary purposes of defence. The ditches in some instances are ninety feet deep, and excavated in the solid rock; the greater part of the ramparts having been in like manner formed by hewing the rocks into the required shapes. Thus Valetta is protected on three sides by the waters of the harbour, which no hostile fleet can enter, as the batteries of St. Angelo rise in four tiers of very heavy metal, a single discharge from which would sink the largest vessel.* The entrance to the port is still further secured by an enormous series of chains, capable of resisting the shock of any force that can be brought to bear upon them.

These extraordinary works were the fruits of continued and unremitting exertions during upwards of two centuries, as shown by the following dates:—

- 1551. Vittoriosa fortified. Fort St. Elmo built.
- 1554. Isola fortified. New works added to Vittoriosa. New works added to Fort St. Elmo.
- 1556. La Valetta commenced.
- 1571. La Valetta finished.
- 1636. Floriana works commenced.
- 1657. Towns built along the coast.
- 1670. New works added to Floriana. Cottoner lines commenced. Fort Ricasoli commenced.
- 1686. Fort St. Elmo rebuilt. The castle of St. Angelo considerably strengthened.
- 1722. Fort Manoel commenced.
- 1749. Fort Chambray (in Gozo) commenced.
- 1796. Fort Tigné commenced.

The old city stands upon a height which overlooks the whole country as far as La Valetta; it has a front, with a ditch and covered way. Above the top of the hills which cross the island and separate the inhabited and cultivated parts of Malta from the remainder, a wall five feet thick was erected by the knights as a retreat for the troops to fall back on if unable to prevent the landing of an enemy. Ports and batteries were also constructed at ports St. Paul

and the causeway, which bounds the Marsa, 1,064 yards. The mouth of the Quarantine harbour, between Fort Tigné and Fort St. Elmo, from shore to shore, 404 yards; from the Lazaretto island to Valetta, from shore to shore, 265 yards. The harbour is so deep, that the largest ships of war can anchor

in almost every part of it between the mouth and Corradino Point; from that part it gets shallow, until at the causeway at the Marsa the depth does not exceed two feet from the surface to the soft mud.

* The entrance to the smooth but strongly defended harbour of Valetta is very picturesque.

and Marsa-Sirocco, which would place a vessel attempting to anchor under a cross-fire; and towers and redoubts built along the whole coast in such a manner as to communicate almost immediately with each other.

The lines themselves are of immense strength, enclosing the various quarters of the capital for the space of a square mile and a-half, and forming works of such extent and intricacy, that it is said 25,000 troops would be required to man them to their full extent. The French defenders numbered but 6,000, yet could only be reduced by famine. Upwards of a thousand pieces of cannon were mounted on the works, and Buonaparte entertained so confirmed an opinion of the strength of the place, that when asked, on his departure for Egypt, for instructions relative to the defence of the garrison and fortifications, he told the officer in command (Vaubois) *to lock the gates and put the key in his pocket.*

In fine, it may be said that Malta is as defensible as nature and art combined can render it. To sit down regularly before Valetta and its surrounding fortifications would require a well-appointed army of many thousand men; and the fortress, if efficiently manned and stored, might be deemed almost impregnable, since the besiegers, in addition to their land forces, ought to be able to blockade the port and command the Mediterranean.

La Valetta, the modern capital, founded by the celebrated grand-master of that name in 1566, and completed in 1571, may be considered one of the most remarkable towns in Europe; the kings of France, Spain, and Portugal, the Pope, and all the knights who resided out of Malta, having contributed munificently towards its erection. The neck of land or promontory on which it stands (originally called *Mount Sciebaras*) divides the main harbour (Great Port) from Marsa-Muscet haven, where the shipping undergo quarantine. The neck is estimated at 3,200 yards long by 1,200 broad, descending by a gradual slope, its whole length, from the land barrier at the southern extremity to the point of St. Elmo, which terminates in the Mediterranean in a narrow point of about 300 yards, bearing north-east by north, on which point the citadel and lighthouse of St. Elmo are built. The centre of this strip of land is its highest point, whence it gradually slopes to the water's edge at either side. The chief streets, eight in number,

run in parallel lines along this ridge or "hog's back" from south to north, or, more strictly speaking, from S.S.W. to N.N.E., and are intersected by shorter ones, eleven in number, which cross from one harbour to another up the sides of the ridge. Besides these regular streets, rows of houses front the works all round, a carriage space being left between them. The thoroughfares afford an excellent means of ventilation, while the gradual descent towards the sea on all sides facilitates the removal of nuisances. The public buildings and private dwellings are of a very superior order. The houses are of solid stone, with flat or terraced roofs, composed of stone slabs, covered over with a thick bed of "terras," or "puzzolana," so as to be impenetrable to rain, and, as in Calcutta and other parts of the East, afford a cool and agreeable morning and evening promenade. Very little wood is employed, the staircases, floors, &c., being of stone. The lower portions are used as shops, stores, or habitations for the poorer classes. Between the ground and first-floor is a "mezzanino," or middle floor, rarely exceeding seven or eight feet in height, and frequently used for bedrooms or eating apartments; the principal suite of apartments being on the first floor. Each house has generally a tank or large well, constructed in a court into which the windows of the principal chambers look. A dwelling, suitable for a moderate-sized family, containing twelve or fourteen apartments, may be rented at £20 per annum, and an equally commodious house and garden in the country for half that sum. The paving and lighting of Valetta are excellent: the principal streets are formed of flags cut out of the hardest pieces of native stone, or with blocks of lava from Mount Etna, and a regularly raised footway runs on either side. Water is supplied by means of the aqueduct before mentioned, at the rate of fifty-eight gallons per minute. In order to insure a supply of this indispensable aliment, every house is furnished with a tank, into which baked earthen pipes convey the rain-water from the flat roofs, and wells and cisterns are sunk in every possible situation. The buildings appropriated for government are admirable, and the palace of the governor is suited for the residence of a crowned head.

Amongst the numerous edifices which ornament the capital, the first to be named is the church, or, as it is called, the Con-cathedral of St. John. This magnificent building

was erected by the grand-master La Cassière, and enriched by the unwearied efforts of successive generations. The knights of the different nations, or, as they were termed, of different *languages*, had in this vast structure their respective chapels. Every compartment of the roof, between the pillars of the chapels, is ornamented with a picture representing the principal events in the life of St. John; the greater part of them are remarkable as paintings. The pavement is composed of sepulchral stones of inlaid marble; several monuments have also been erected between the pillars and in various places of the church, and for richness and grandeur have few rivals; some of them are encrusted with jasper, agate, and other costly stones. The principal altar is placed in the middle of the choir, beyond which stands a group in marble representing the baptism of our Saviour. Before the deplorable French invasion, the cathedral treasury was stored with articles extremely valuable, not only on account of the precious material of which many of them were composed, but still more on the ground of antiquity and exquisite workmanship. Unfortunately, none of them escaped the rapacity of the conquerors.*

The church of San Pubblio, at Floriana, just out of Valetta, takes its name from the Pubblii mentioned in the "Acts of the Apostles;" this early convert to Christianity having been, according to tradition, the first bishop of Malta.

The church is much visited by strangers, who find within its precincts extraordinary means of gratification for that morbid curiosity which deems the unburied dead of the hospital of St. Bernard its chief attraction, and finds amid the dreary scenes of La Morgue a strange charm, surpassing in interest the varied fascinations of the gayest capital in the world. As a curious vestige of the "Middle Ages," the Sotteraneo of San Pubblio is perhaps unequalled. Beneath the building, and of almost equal extent, is a subterranean hall, around which, like statues in niches, stand the embalmed bodies of successive priors (about fifty in number), dressed in the well-known Capuchin habit. The walls of this strange catacomb are covered with the bones of friars of meaner degree, arranged in the form of swords, shields, and trees; while, as if in

unison with the unseemly blending of the horrible and the grotesque (illustrated in Hogarth's "Dance of Death"), entire skeletons stand in the attitude of fencing, with leg or arm bones for weapons; and all around, devices equally coarse in taste and mistaken in principle, are scattered, with the intention of affording to the living, not a *memento mori*, but a *memento purgatori*.

Once every year—on "All-Saints' Day,"—this famed Sotteraneo is open to the public, when representations of a melo-dramatic and awfully profane character are enacted, in which Satan and the fallen angels, torturing the souls, or rather bodies, of unsaved believers amidst the dazzling glare of red and blue fire, are made to do the priests good service, by extorting from the terrified or amused bystanders, golden rewards for the contrivers of these impious theatricals, ostensibly in return for a certain quantity of "vain repetitions," to be offered up for the supposed sufferers, in accordance with the legends engraved around the collected bones of ancient saints—such as, "Weep before the relics;" "Rise and liberate us."

The other most remarkable buildings, are the palace of the grand-masters, the lodges of the different languages or nations, the conservatory, university, treasury, palace of justice, hospital, public bank (Monte di Pietà), barracks, theatre, and the exchange. The architecture of all these structures is distinguished by two qualities, which characterise most Maltese constructions; the one a refined taste in the composition of the general subjects,—the other a noble simplicity in the arrangement of individual portions. The front of the Provençal lodge, that of Castille, and of the conservatory, are the most notable in style. One section of the latter edifice serves for the public library, which contains about 100,000 volumes. Next to the library is an extensive museum, divided into several rooms, containing a variety of interesting objects, such as a large collection of medals, several vases, specimens of the antiquities of the island, ancient marbles, &c.

The hospital consists of several large airy apartments, capable of accommodating a number of patients. During the government of the grand-masters, the utensils employed in the service of the sick were all of silver, but of such plain workmanship, as indicated the measure to have proceeded rather from a refinement of cleanliness, than ostentation.

* When visiting this cathedral in 1844, I was shown several places where the ornaments had been of pure silver.

The grand-master's palace, now the residence of the governor, is an immense square pile of building, externally unornamented, but of an imposing appearance. The apartments are large and convenient, and enriched with beautiful pictures, hangings, damasks, and a great collection of arms of all kinds, arranged with precision and taste. The arsenal was formerly of considerable importance under the grand-mastership of the Order; it has been further enlarged by the British government.

The barracks and hospitals are numerous; and an idea of their substantial structure may be obtained from the fact, that the lower floors of the barracks are formed frequently on the surface of the quarries, whence the stone has been mined for the construction of the fortifications; while the lower parts of the walls are merely the rock perpendicularly scarped. The barracks or casements are all bomb-proof, ventilated by long galleries and large doors; the heat of summer is little felt; the supply of water is admirable, as also the facilities for sea-bathing and exercise. Several monuments stand within the ramparts, of much interest to Englishmen: namely, those of Sir Ralph Abercrombie, Sir Alexander Ball, Sir Thomas Maitland, the Marquis of Hastings, Admiral Otham, Sir Robert Spencer, and others.

The casals, or towns, and the villages scattered throughout the island, are neatly and well built; the old capital of Città Vecchia, or *Notabile*, preserves among the natives its ancient name of *Medina*, and is still the seat of the bishopric; it contains the palace of the first grand-masters, and also the cathedral of Malta, adjoining which is an excellent college. The catacombs, the chief curiosity of the place, form an extensive labyrinth of subterranean passages, crossing each other in every direction; they are cut in the rock, at a depth of about fifteen feet below the surface; and the number of corridors is very considerable.

The famed grotto of St. Paul, not far distant, consists of a large cave, divided into three separate parts by iron grates: in the furthest part from the entrance is a statue of the apostle, of white marble. A part of the cave resembles the nave of a church, and is constantly covered with vegetation.

The roads are generally good, and extend to all parts of the island, so as to admit of easy access by horses, carts, and caleches; communications by water are also safe and cheap, hundreds of commodious boats keep-

ing up a constant intercourse between the towns on each side of the harbour; boats of a larger class ply regularly to Gozo and Sicily.

GOZO ISLAND,* although fertile and thickly inhabited, contains no town, the inhabitants being scattered in six villages, protected by a strong fort, *Rabato*, in the centre of the island. The surface is very agreeably diversified with hill and dale, some of the more elevated parts in the north-west being nearly 2,000 feet above the sea. A chain of these elevations encircle the island, forming fertile valleys, separated by gently rising grounds; the summits of some of the mountains are flattened; others are rounded or mammillary; and there are four or five remarkable detached hills, perfectly conical in shape, and presenting the appearance of old volcanic formations. The interior of Gozo and its shores abound in caves and rocks, being of the same calcareous nature as those of Malta, but the country is more rural and agreeable.

Fort Chambray affords the principal accommodation for troops; it is built on the south-east side of the island, upon an elevated promontory, forming one side of a little bay in which the Malta boats anchor; the coast-line is very bold, especially to the south, where it rises in rugged and inaccessible cliffs, with huge masses of rock broken off from them and projecting into the sea; the road gradually winds inland to the fort (which is 500 feet above the shore), after a circuit of about 700 yards; the area on which the fortification is built is about 2,500 feet in circumference. The barracks can receive 250 men, are admirably arranged, and there is a small but excellent hospital attached. The lieutenant-governor resides near Migiarro, a small and insecure port, but the only one which the island possesses. A constant intercourse is kept up with Valletta; the distance to be traversed by sea is eighteen miles, although Malta and Gozo are not four miles apart. The intermediate islet of Comino, oblong in shape, and two miles in length, has a few inhabitants, employed in cultivating about thirty acres of land, and in preserving the numerous rabbits with which the place abounds.

Besides Cominotto, which lies off the north-west end of Comino, there are four or five other islets, or rather rocks, belonging

* The name was supposed to be given from its imaginary resemblance to a cup; the actual shape is an irregular oval.

to Malta and Gozo. On the south coast of Malta is Filfoia, or Filfla, which contains, it is said, an ancient parish church: nearer the shore, and more to the eastward, is a rock called the Pietra Nera; and at the north-west end of the island, towards Gozo, is another rock, called the Scoglio Marfo. At the north end of St. Paul's Bay is the island of Salomonetta; but the best known of these appendages is the fungus rock of Gozo, or "*Hagira tal general*," celebrated for its production of *Corallina Officinalis* (Linnaeus), or fungus melitensis, which was formerly esteemed a sovereign panacea for all the ills that flesh is heir to.

GEOLOGY AND SOIL.—The commissioners sent by the grand-master, L'Isle Adam, in 1525, to examine Malta, when offered by Charles V. to the Order, described it as a rock six or seven leagues long, of sandstone, called *tufa*: the structure is now ascertained to be limestone of different species and of unequal density, though generally speaking remarkably soft, and crumbling away even under the action of the weather with great facility. Calcareous freestone is more or less abundant, limestone generally lying on the freestone, and the latter incumbent on a bed of marl. Geologically considered, Malta and Gozo belong to the tertiary aqueous formations, either to the older or the newer phocene of Lyall.

The stone of Malta, adapted for architectural purposes, is principally of two kinds, viz., the hard and soft, of each of which there are many varieties; indeed, the one passes into the other by an almost insensible gradation. The hard stone is a species of coarse marble of crystalline structure; specific gravity, 2.5,—not absorbent of moisture, and not liable to decompose or disintegrate on exposure to the atmosphere. It consists almost entirely of carbonate of lime, is adapted for all works requiring strength, and particularly well fitted for pavements and floors. It is found in many parts of the island, generally near the surface. The soft stone is a kind of freestone, composed chiefly of carbonate of lime, with a variable though small proportion of alumina, and a trace of peroxyde of iron, which imparts a peculiar light fawn colour. It is absorbent of water: a specimen tried by Dr. Davy, immersed in water, gained eleven per cent., yet was itself very light, having a specific gravity of only 1.9. It cuts almost as readily as chalk, and is far more abundant than the hard kind. It is the

common building stone, and is very durable if protected from the atmosphere; the purest kinds are those which contain least clay, and are not liable to disintegrate on exposure; when used for flooring, oiling or painting is requisite.

It may be remarked that to the absorbent quality of the soft freestone the lands of Malta owe their fertility; and so sensible are the natives of this fact, that it is a common practice to occasionally remove the soil from the subjacent rock, and break up its surface to the depth of an inch or thereabouts, either generally or at intervals, in stripes; such a measure being found necessary in consequence of the deposition of carbonate of lime, which is apt to take place on the surface from the percolating water, by which the minute pores are filled, and the superficial rock is rendered more or less impervious, thus preventing the admission of rain-water in the winter, and its escape in the dry season. The Maltese soft stone is said to be highly useful in the manufacture of fine china; the sediment of the deposition in water being collected and formed into a mould like bricks.

Dr. Hennen describes a species of stone, of the nature of the "Oolite" or "Roestone of Bath," which is principally employed in building: it is very general throughout the island, and so easily worked that it can be cut with a hatchet or turned into various architectural ornaments in an appropriate apparatus, like an ordinary cutler's wheel; but if not judiciously used, it chips and exfoliates very rapidly. The masses are naturally laminated, and in buildings it is necessary to take care that the extremities of the laminae and not their flat surface be presented to the action of the air. The sea air and the contact of sea-water is peculiarly injurious to some of these stones: repeated exfoliations of a reticulated texture are thrown off from them until they are completely corroded—a process daily perceptible in the works about the harbour. This species, like the ordinary soft stone of Malta, is of a yellowish-white colour, and so very impure, that, although itself carbonate of lime, it will not burn into quicklime, while the purer and harder carbonates afford a copious supply of this material, when subjected to the action of fire. By an analysis made some years since by Dr. Naudi, professor of chemistry in the university, and a scientific English resident, alumina and magnesia were found to exist in some quantity in this

building-stone; in the softer sort *magnesia* was prevalent,—and *alum* in the harder: hence the old palace of Boschetto, which was built in the end of the 15th century, of the latter stone, is much less impaired than erections of a very modern date, in which the former stone has been employed.

Other specimens, chiefly from the western side of the island, proved to be pure carbonates of lime, so hard as to serve for pavements; some bear a high polish, and are employed for tables or chimney-pieces, forming a pretty species of marble: these are chiefly found at St. Julian's, on the western coast. Alabaster is also procurable in some parts of both Malta and Gozo, but especially in the latter. At Marsa-Sirocco, to the southward of the island, are found blocks in detached pieces, of a blackish and reddish calcareous stone-like lava; if rubbed they exhale, by Dolomieu's account, a strong smell, and if dissolved in sulphuric acid, a black oily scum, with a similar smell, floats on the surface. Gypsum, both spicular and cuneiform, is frequent. Iron pyrites are seen in various clayey hills, especially in Gozo.

The soil, like the rock of Malta, is almost entirely calcareous: a specimen collected by Dr. Davy in a barley-field near Città Vecchia, consisted of—91.0 carbonate of lime; 7.0 alumina, with a little siliceous sand and red oxide of iron; 1.5 vegetable matter; 0.5 hygrometric matter. Considering the very small proportion of vegetable matter, and the little humidity the ground contains, or is capable of retaining, it is extremely fertile,—a circumstance which is attributed to the great proportion of carbonate of lime in the best state of mechanical division in the soil, and the porous nature of the rocky substratum, which absorbs the rain like a sponge, and permits, during the dry season, the slow exhalation of moisture.

In a communication received by me from Dr. Davy, while that gentleman was inspector of hospitals at Malta, he says that it is not commonly the practice to form soil by breaking up rock; soil ready formed, lying in the hollows and crevices of rocks, is collected; the crevices are filled up with fragments, the projecting rocks are removed, the surface is made as level as is easily practicable, and the soil collected deposited thereon: and thus, according to Carlo Giacinto, who has written an interesting little work on the agriculture of Malta, "*campi artificiali*" are formed. The soil is generally good as regards its

quality, though in too many instances it is of little depth. Forty different specimens, collected in the neighbourhood of the different casals, on being examined, were found to be all composed principally of carbonate of lime: they varied chiefly in the proportion of clay, and likewise in that of peroxyde of iron, to which they owe their colour. The dark red soils contained most of this oxyde, and the largest proportion generally of alumina. The very light fawn-coloured abounded most in carbonate of lime, and contained only a just perceptible trace of the peroxyde of iron. All the soils belonging to Malta, and also to Gozo, may be considered as coming under the denomination of calcareous marls, and, with very few exceptions, fall to powder under the influence of water. In no instance did Dr. Davy meet with any siliceous soil, or any pure clay soil. The proportion of vegetable matter in the best soils is exceedingly minute, under one per cent.; much manuring is therefore required.

Nowhere in the island are there any traces of volcanic eruption, any hot springs (excepting two or three weak saline spas), or any trap rocks; portions of pumice are said to have been found in the freestone of Gozo. Whether Malta and Gozo were at one time joined together, and at a more distant period in connection with Sicily, or otherwise, it is impossible to say positively; though the rocks and marls of both islands are considered very similar to the adjoining parts of Sicily, which are of the newer phœne; but as yet, organic remains have not been collected in sufficient number to assist in the formation of a decided opinion.

In the craggy rocks round Malta and Gozo are many spacious caves or grottoes, some of which being on a level with the sea, the waves dash in when in an agitated state, and resound tremendously. The mouths of others are at different heights, and the access is more or less difficult and dangerous, according to their situation; there are some, indeed, in order to enter which, it is necessary to be suspended by ropes. One of the most considerable of those usually visited, is situated towards the point of land called Benghisa, near the Marsa-Sirocco creek. This, from its length and breadth, is distinguished by the name of the *Great*, and it extends more than 200 paces underground. All these grottoes are full of stalactites and stalagmites, produced by the water filtering through the calcareous rock. The falling in of one of these caverns must have caused the

singular excavation called Makluba, near Casal Zurrico. At the distance of a hundred paces to the south of the shore, and not far from the rocks on the coast, there is a circular, or rather an oval cavity, more than a hundred feet in depth, and formed like an imperfect cone. The larger diameter of the lower plain is about ninety-five paces, and that of the smaller one eighty; but the opening is less than twenty paces in extent. The excavation lies in the shelving cliffs which incline a little from south to north, and have hitherto suffered no change, but have remained exactly as if this, in part, circular space, had been the work of art.

CLIMATE AND DISEASES.—The climate of Malta is decidedly warm; indeed, almost tropical. The maximum temperature for the year may be taken at 90° Fahr., and the minimum at 46° ; mean at 63° Fahr. The barometer may be similarly quoted at $38^{\circ} 8'$, $30^{\circ} 2'$, and $30^{\circ} 5'$. The hygrometer 87° , 30° , and $58\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$. The heat of the summer is doubtless increased by radiation of the solar rays from the rocks surrounding Valetta; but in the country around, and in Gozo in particular, the atmosphere is from 2° to 4° cooler.

The prevailing winds are from the south-east and north-west; the former are characterised by humidity and exhausting heat, and produce a damp and suffocating smell: these siroccos are most common in August, September, and October. The north-east wind ("*gregale*") is brief and violent in its duration, frequently occasioning serious mischief in the harbour during the winter months.

Sudden and partial gusts of intensely heated air are occasionally felt in Malta, which are blown from the coast of Africa. Fortunately they seldom exceed half a minute in duration, for, if prolonged, life would be extinguished, owing to the fierceness of the heat, which is remarkable for blowing in tracts, affecting the inhabitants of one house and not their neighbours. It is probably a portion of the "*samiel*" or "*simoom*" of Africa. When dry wind blows over the island, especially in summer, impalpable dust floats about in volumes, and is precipitated in the shape of a shower of mud, on the recurrence of a damp wind, or when the fogs and dews are peculiarly heavy.

No regular sea or land breezes moderate the heat of Malta. Captain Smyth found the temperature of the sea, round the adjacent shores of Sicily, at a depth of ten to

twenty fathoms, 73° to 76° Fahr., which was ten or twelve degrees warmer than the water outside of the Straits of Gibraltar. Snow only appears at Malta as a luxury imported from Etna; but in the winter months there are frequent hail showers. Rain falls with tropical violence in December, January, and part of February. About March the sky gets settled; an occasional shower may occur in April and May; but during June, July, and August, not a cloud is to be seen. September and October are cooled by showers; the air is placid and invigorating; and this cheering period is termed the "*St. Martin's*," or "*little summer*." The effects of thunder and lightning are not severely experienced, though the electric discharge is loud and frequent, and during the summer and autumn nights the sky is brilliantly illuminated with bright corruscations, resembling the *aurora borealis* of northern climes.

ANIMAL KINGDOM.—All the domesticated animals thrive in Malta; mules and asses are remarkable for their strength and beauty. The Maltese dog—a breed once highly valued—is now, I believe, extinct. The goats are of good breed; but the horned cattle are small, and principally imported from Sicily, Barbary, and the adjacent coasts. Snakes are to be found, but they are not poisonous. Birds of various kinds migrate to the island at different periods, and the hawks of Malta were formerly much celebrated; the bees were also renowned, and still yield such excellent aromatic honey, that the island is conjectured to have been therefore named "*Melita*" by the Greeks. Mosquitoes and other insects abound. Among the different species of caterpillar is one of a very singular conformation, having no feet.

Fish of various kinds are plentiful. The dory, rock-cod, and a species of whiting, popularly called the "*lupo*" are excellent. The cray-fish, found on the rocks around the island of Gozo, is enormous in size, and of fine flavour. One of the most remarkable of Maltese fish is the "*pholis dactylus*," which abounds in the harbour, forming for itself a complete "*habitat*" in the soft rock, which it perforates as regularly as if with an augur, giving to the several portions of the rock the appearance of the wood-work of a cartridge-box.

POPULATION.—When or by whom Malta was first peopled is unknown; but, as in Ceylon and other places, a race of giants were, according to tradition, the earliest

occupants. While in possession of the Phœnicians and Carthaginians it was probably thickly inhabited, owing to the extensive commerce then carried on; but the earliest data obtainable are those given by Boisgelin, who says that, in 1559, after the raising of the famous siege of Malta by the Turks, the island contained only 10,000 inhabitants. The official records of 1590 state the population of the two islands of Malta and Gozo at 28,864; in 1617, at 43,798; in 1670, 60,000; in 1780, at 100,000. In 1775 there were computed to be in Malta and Gozo, 121,507 native inhabitants; including 16,000 regular militia (effective men.) The loss during the siege of the French, in Valetta, from 1798 to 1800, amounted to 20,000, including women and children, independent of the levies Buonaparte forcibly carried off to Egypt. A detailed census for 1807, gives the

number of inhabitants in Malta at 80,225; in Gozo, 12,829 = 93,054; other inhabitants and domesticated strangers, estimated at 22,100; absent, estimated by register, 7,650: grand total, 122,804.

The number of foreigners residing in Malta during the six or seven years preceding the plague of 1813, was estimated at from 30,000 to 40,000. Many houses were fitted up like ships, with tiers of berths, and several large vessels were converted into floating hotels.

In 1824, the population of Malta alone was estimated by the deputy inspector of police at 96,104.

The following return for Malta alone, from 1824 to 1828, was transmitted to me by the late governor of the island, Sir Frederick Ponsonby, together with the census for the year 1834:—

Years.	No. of Population.	No. of Deaths.	Under what Age died.				
			Infants under 8 years.	Children from 8 to 14.	Youths from 15 to 28.	Men from 29 to 50.	Old from 51 to 70.
1824	96,404	2,345	1,125	80	158	221	372
1825	97,627	2,612	1,276	82	179	293	398
1826	98,739	2,277	1,090	62	152	330	370
1827	99,549	2,134	1,180	60	160	260	385
1828	100,949	2,592	1,260	79	178	291	390

During this period of five years, there died each year of apoplexy, about 120; of dropsy, 200; of marasmus, 200; of dentition, 550; of dysentery, 130; of diarrhoea, 280; of miscarriage, 120; still-born, 30; of debility (infants who died soon after birth), 150; of pthisis pulmonalis, 100; of nervous and bilious fevers, 170. During this period, of those who died, no one had reached the age of 100; the oldest did not exceed 98 years: of this age about four or five in each year; about 30 individuals died annually of 90 and upwards.

The returns to the Colonial Office give the following as the number of inhabitants of Malta and Gozo, for a series of years:—

Years.	White & Free Coloured People.		Births.	Deaths.
	Males.	Females.		
1828	50,354	59,296	3,760	2,964
1829	50,239	60,557	3,722	2,592
1830	50,482	60,480	4,027	4,133
1831	50,762	61,077	4,115	2,958
1832	60,594	61,069	3,739	2,753
1833	60,403	61,563	3,824	3,004
1834	60,252	61,674	3,853	3,060
1851*	63,568	65,033	4,605	3,981

* Exclusive of military, and their wives and families, viz.,—males, 1,730; females, 250; and political refugees—males, 289; females, 30; children, 31.

Taking the area of Malta and Gozo at 115 square miles, and the number of inhabitants thereon at about 131,000, there are 1,138 mouths to each square mile of surface.

The natives of Malta are said to be long lived, but only the later statistics of deaths include the ages of the deceased. Abela states instances of persons living to 80, 90, 100, 105, 107, and 110 years. He notices

one man, a native of Zabbar, who lived nearly to the age of 120, and preserved his strength, his teeth, and, in part, the colour of his hair; and another, a resident in the civil hospital at Città Vecchia, completed the same number of years, retaining to the last his memory and judgment. It is asserted by the same authority, that some of the ancient inhabitants lived to 130 years of age, owing to the purity of the air, and their temperate mode of living.

The Maltese are generally of middle stature, with robust frames, and small hands and feet; the hair black, and sometimes inclined to frizzle; lips frequently thick, and skin swarthy among the common people where exposed to the atmosphere; the eye dark and bright; and the higher classes are remarkable for that full and lustrous style of beauty which constitutes the most prized charm among oriental women. In some of the villages, such as the Casal di Zurrico, there are a considerable number of blue-eyed persons to be met with. In general, there is throughout the villages a good deal of the Spanish character dis-

played, but in the cities, and among the higher orders, French and Greek characteristics are combined. The men are industrious, active, frugal; attached to their country, passive, but yet nowise deficient in courage, as has been often proved, for they are considered the best seamen in the Mediterranean.* Those in easy circumstances dress like other Europeans, but the lower orders are clothed in a loose cotton shirt, over which is a wide vest, or jacket, ornamented with silver, or sometimes gold buttons, a long twisted scarf, wound several times round the body, with a sheathed knife attached thereto; loose short drawers, leaving the legs bare nearly from the knees downwards, and very peculiar shoes called *korch*, consisting of a leathern sole, fastened with strings, or thongs, to the foot and leg, not unlike the old Roman sandal. The winter head-dress consists of a woollen cap of different colours, with a hood falling down on the back; in summer, large straw hats are worn. The women, for the most part, retain their ancient and picturesque costume, consisting of a cotton under garment, a petticoat (generally of a blue colour), an upper robe opening at the side, and a corset with sleeves. The hair, covered with pomatum and powder, is arranged in a high cone in front of the head, and the face concealed by a large black silken veil called *faldetta*, which the wearer adroitly shifts when exposing her features to a side or full view. Many ladies have recently adopted the English fashions, except during the time of performing their religious duties, when they appear at church in their ancient costume.

The Maltese marry early: instances are not rare where girls have been mothers at thirteen years of age; they suffer little in childbirth; twins are a common occurrence, but no instance of triplets has ever been heard of in the island; and when told such occurrences are not unfrequent in England, they shake their heads in emphatic disbelief. Deformity is exceedingly rare, and monstrosity still more so: in early infancy the children are swathed from the shoulders down to the toes, including the arms, which are laid close along the sides, so as to present a striking resemblance to an Egyptian mummy. Notwithstanding this apparently unnatural restraint, the use of the limbs is

early acquired: a crippled or an impotent child is a rare sight; and the activity of the Maltese, especially as swimmers and divers, is very great. In some cases, weakly or diseased children are taught to draw their nutriment from the goats; but in general there is no difference between the food of the infant and the adult, except in quantity; the newly weaned child swallowing oil, cheese, salt fish, vegetables, fruits, and salads, with the *gusto* of its parents—this food being sometimes varied by a little brown bread, macaroni, oil, garlic, cheese, and a salt sardine or anchovy, eaten raw; a draught of Sicilian wine closes the meal. Coffee and iced water are the only luxuries common to all ages and sexes: even among the higher classes, little animal food is used. Fish is very abundant, and none allowed to be sold twenty-four hours after being caught. Tobacco, in the form of smoking, is regarded as a necessary article of diet, but is happily unaccompanied by any intoxicating draught.

Sea-bathing is general among both sexes, the time chosen being from sunset until near midnight. The siesta, or mid-day sleep, is a universal summer custom; from twelve to two is the hour of dinner and of the siesta, and during that period no respectable person that can avoid it, leaves home. Music is the favourite amusement of all classes: the lower ranks meet in groups at the corners of the streets, singing extempore verses to old national airs, the burden of the song being probably the praise of a mistress, or the disparagement of a rival. Dancing, horse and boat-racing, processions in honour of numerous saints, with an occasional village maypole festival, form the chief diversions; and it is an excellent feature in the Maltese character that these are unattended by drunkenness or quarrelling. The different promenades are much frequented; that of the botanic garden, in the suburbs, is enlivened by the military music of the various garrison regiments. Beyond the ramparts, the places called *Pietà Shima*, and *St. Giuliano*, present an animated scene of beautiful walks. The surrounding country is covered with elegant villas, some of which have been lately built, after the native manner, by English gentlemen, who have chosen the environs of the capital as the scene of their residence.

LANGUAGE. — The upper class speak Italian; the common people a patois com-

* The Quay or Marina of Valetta presents a very striking picture to the eye of the stranger; the commerce of the place contrasting strongly with the size of the small but deep and secure harbour.

pounded of Arabic, German, Italian, and other tongues. The Arabic, however, so far predominates, that the peasants of Malta and Barbary can without much difficulty understand each other. Captain Vella contends that the Maltese language, as it is generally spoken by the mass of the people, is still the original Punic, which has passed unaltered through the changes and revolutions of so many nations—successive masters and oppressors of the island of Malta. Differences may be perceived, chiefly in the pronunciation, in various parts of the island, but the substance of the language is in all the same.* There is no national alphabet; but, according to the fancy of the writer, those of other tongues are adopted. English is becoming generally understood throughout the island.

RELIGION.—A scrupulous attention to the rites of the Romish church is characteristic of the Maltese. The landed ecclesiastical property is considerable; and there are about one thousand secular and regular clergy in the two islands.†

Previous to the year 1827, many of the churches enjoyed sanctuary rights, and priests were not under the jurisdiction of the civil tribunals; but a law was passed in that year abolishing these privileges, and the bishop's court has now only ecclesiastical sway. The archbishop of the island has a seat in the Legislative Council.

The Roman catholic church is supported by its own revenues, under the immediate control of the Bishop of Malta, and is for the most part independent of the local government; it receives no assistance from the local revenues: its churches and chapels amount to upwards of 250; and its "secular" priesthood to nearly 900 persons. There are, however, a few benefices at the nomination of the local authorities, and a few churches are kept in repair out of the local revenues; besides which the government, in its capacity of landed proprietor, defrays the expenses of certain ecclesiastical establishments to the amount of about £1,300, the greater portion of which sum forms a permanent charge on the property so possessed. The tower and spire of the English collegiate church of St. Paul's, in Valetta, were completed in 1845; this build-

ing was erected, at an expense of £15,000, by Her Majesty the late Queen Adelaide. A small bible society was formed at Malta, through the exertions of Henry Drummond, M.P. The whole ecclesiastical establishment stood thus in 1854:—Church of England, 3: church of Rome, 68 = Malta, 56; Gozo, 12. Church of Rome has 234 chapels and oratories in Malta, and 23 in Gozo. Church of Scotland, 1; Greek church, 1; Synagogue, 1; Roman catholic convents—Malta, 16; Gozo, 3 = 19. Nunneries, 5. Ecclesiastical establishments, altogether, 424.

EDUCATION is well attended to in Malta. There is a college in Valetta, instituted by the grand-master Pinto, in 1771, where degrees in divinity, law, and physic are conferred under certain regulations; and a preparatory school is attached thereto, in which boys are received indiscriminately on payment of a trifle. The support of the college devolves upon government, as on the expulsion of the Jesuits from Malta, their property, which now amounts to about £700 a-year, was allotted for the support of the university, and of a church which now costs the government £176 per annum, the remainder being devoted to the university, in which there are 490 scholars; those in higher schools (unless specially exempted by the council) pay 4s. 2d. each month, from which is defrayed the salary of the secretary (£1 15s. 4d. per month), and certain pensions to supernumerary professors. To this fund the students in medicine, surgery, and anatomy, do not contribute, but pay 4s. 2d. each month to their respective teachers.

There are two normal free schools, at which more than one thousand boys and girls are educated. These seminaries, together with a small one at Gozo, are supported chiefly by government; private subscriptions are, however, received. There was, for a considerable time, much jealousy on the part of the Roman catholic clergy regarding education, as it was feared that it might be made use of as the means of conversion to the Protestant faith. This feeling has subsided; and in one of the normal schools lately established, a canon of the church is the principal director. The chil-

* According to Anderson, the Lord's Prayer in the Maltese language is as follows:—"Missicna li inti fis meucit jukaddes ismech, tigi salutatech icun li trit int chif fis sema hegda flart. Hhobna ta eu-lliam atina ilum u Ahhfrna daubietna chif ahma-

nahfru lil min bhata ghalina u laddabhanna fitt-grif ta tentazzjoni isda ehblisna middeni. Amen."

† By the calendar of 1742, it appears that there were then 2,000 priests and ecclesiastics in Malta and Gozo, exclusive of the members of the Order.

dren are taught reading, writing, arithmetic, the rudiments of Italian grammar, and in some instances, English and Latin; the females learn needlework, spinning, and weaving. The number of schools under the control of government, in 1854, was—for boys, 18; for girls, 18; for infants, 3; navigation, 1; superior school, Gozo, 1=41: pupils—males, 2,777; females, 2,192=4,969. Much good is expected from, and has indeed already attended, the *Protestant College*, an institution founded in 1846, which comprises not only a school for youth, but also a class of adult orientalists under training as native teachers.

The *Press* is represented by a government gazette.

Libraries.—In the year 1761, the Baile De Tencen founded the public library of Malta, which was enlarged by the gifts of many princes, kings, and distinguished individuals. The King of France contributed a select set of books; and the institution was entitled to copies of all works published at the royal press at Paris. The collection formed at the general hospital was transferred to it, and a regulation enacted, by which the books of all the deceased knights became its property; an annuity of 300 crowns was allotted for its augmentation, and some additional income was derived from the sale of duplicates, inasmuch that, in 1798, the number of books, if we are to credit Boisgelin, amounted to upwards of 60,000. This library is open to the public at certain hours of the day, but no books are lent out: it contains a number of excellent and some rare and very valuable works. A subscription library, attached to the

garrison, was formed in 1806, for purposes of reference and lending out.

Hospitals and Charitable Institutions.—There are two large hospitals at Valletta, and one at Gozo, supported entirely by government. A good library is attached to the institution: all persons are received therein who require medical aid; and there is also a public dispensary, where medicines are furnished gratis to those who do not need in-door treatment.* At Floriana, a suburb of Valletta, there are two charitable institutions, one called *L'Ospizio*, the other the *House of Industry*: the first is for the reception of old men and women; and a part of the building is appropriated for the reception of the insane. About 700 persons are maintained in this establishment. The whole of the charitable institutions are under the management of a committee, chiefly composed of persons holding office under government. The prisons, which are admirably managed as regards the various ends of classification, cleanliness, and reformation, are under the same committee.

GOVERNMENT.—The administration of the island is usually confided to a military governor, who commands the troops: and is aided by a council.

THE REVENUE is derived from customs† and excise duties on corn imported, rent of Crown lands and houses, fees, fines, &c. In 1833-'34, and for some subsequent years, it averaged £100,000 per annum; in 1853, the average for several preceding years was £130,000. There is also a local revenue for municipal purposes, amounting to about £40,000 a-year. The established civil expenditure for 1853, was £56,000; pensions

* The medicines most in use belong to the pharmacopœia of past ages. Oil of sweet almonds is deemed a panacea for all diseases. Lemon-juice is also a frequent application in domestic practice, especially in disorders of the eyes; and it appears to be a tolerably active stimulant, and useful in certain stages of disease. The "*aqua distillata cattellorum*," or puppy water, is still resorted to by some; it is not prepared like Ambrose Paré's celebrated emollient ointment, by stewing down the whelp with oil, but by a simple process of distillation; of course this is no more than distilled water, with a very minute admixture of such animal matter as would rise in the heat of 212°. It is held to be a sovereign remedy in frights and nervous affections of women, or "*scanto*," as they are called; and though an empirical trick, its employment is defended on a medical principle, viz., the violent reaction it produces when the patient is told of the remedy she has swallowed. An absorbent earth found in some caves is used in all cases attended with acrimonious humours, and as a specific in fevers. It is said to be

perpetually reproduced by the exposure of the clay to the action of the atmosphere; which swells by the moisture, and when one layer of the surface is removed, another comes in contact with the atmosphere, and its texture loosens and becomes saturated like the preceding layer, after the manner of slaked lime. Another popular remedy is the sand-bath, and which is chiefly used for rachitis and pertussis. The patient is kept in the pit close covered up with sand for different periods from ten minutes to half-an-hour; and a copious perspiration being thus produced, is kept up by the use of diluents and artificial warmth, after which a cordial is administered.

† Custom duties on spirits, £1 2s. per Maltese barrel; on beer, 2s. per ditto; on wines (valued at £15 per pipe of eleven Maltese barrels), 11s. per Maltese barrel: all other wines, 2s. per ditto. Duties on grain—wheat, 10s. per salma; cattle, 10s. per head. Other descriptions of grain and cattle in like proportions. Tonnage dues, 20s. to 30s. for each vessel of 400 to 800 tons.

and retired allowances, £15,000; revenue service, £5,375; roads, streets, and bridges, £23,588; works and buildings, £18,275; contribution towards military expenditure, £6,200; charitable allowances, £3,630; education (exclusive of establishments), £1,115; hospitals, £12,115; police and gaols, £1,015; justice, £323; with various minor sums.

The military expenditure incurred by England amounts, ordinarily, to about £130,000 per annum; the inhabitants pay the salary of the governor (£5,000), and furnish from £18,000 to £20,000 per annum towards defraying military charges, including the support of the Malta Fencibles (a regular regiment, 639 strong) and a militia corps.

PUBLIC DEBT—£78,446, bearing interest at $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. per annum; created in 1805, in favour of those who lost capital in the ancient Malta frumentaria, or grain concern, on the arrival of the French in 1798: * £43,930, at 2 per cent., invested in Maltese bank; £11,439, a contribution or loan to the

* The Monte di Pietà was established at Malta in the year 1597, and, like all European institutions of the sort, with the object of affording pecuniary supplies to the distressed at reasonable interest, thereby preventing them from having recourse to usurers. Any sum of money, however small, is advanced to the applicants on the security of property given in pawn,—such as gold, silver, and other precious articles, or wearing apparel, whether worn or new. The period of the loan is for three years on pawns of the first description, and never more than two on those of the latter, renewable at the option of the borrowers, who are at liberty to redeem their pawned goods at any time within the stated period on payment of proportionate interest. The present rate is six per cent. per annum. The unclaimed property, at the expiration of the allotted period, is sold by public auction, and the residue of the proceeds, after deducting the sum due to the institution, is payable to the person producing the ticket. Of the accommodation thus afforded by the Monte, persons of high respectability occasionally avail themselves during temporary exigencies; and in this way considerable sums have been advanced. Till the year 1787, the operations of the institution were conducted by means of money borrowed at a moderate interest, and by funds acquired by donations, &c. But the then grand-master, Rohan, authorised the consolidation of the funds of the Monte di Pietà with those of the Monte di Redenzione, another national institution, founded in the year 1607 by private donations and bequests, for the philanthropic object of rescuing from slavery any of the natives who might fall into the hands of the Mohammedans, and not have the means of ransom. As this institution had larger funds (mostly in landed property) than it actually required to meet its proper demands, the act of consolidation proved of the greatest advantage to the Monte di Pietà. Thus united, the two institutions, with the new title of Monte di Pietà e

Monte di Pietà, existing from ancient times; £1,214, Gozo Savings' Bank.

Monneys.—The introduction of British money has not hitherto produced among the commercial body of inhabitants generally any alteration in their mode of keeping their accounts, and of making sales, contracts, &c., which are continued as formerly in Maltese currency—namely, scudi, tari, and grains: 20 grains = 1 tari; 12 taris = 1 scudo = 1s. 8d. sterling. The current gold coins are the French louis-d'or, and a piece bearing the effigy of a grand-master, both worth about 10 scudi = 16s. 8d. Spanish doubloons, with an agis, from 40 to 40½ scudi; Venetian sequins from 4¾ to 5 scudi; and the Sicilian ounce = 6¼ scudi. *Silver.*—Sicilian dollar = 2½ scudi; Grand-master pieces of 2 and 1 scudi; pieces of 15, 10, 6, and 5 taris each; Spanish dollar = 2 scudi, 7 taris, and 4 grains.

There are two public banks in profitable operation. In the year 1854, the notes issued did not exceed £20,000 in amount.

Redenzione, conducted their separate duties under the superintendence of a Board, consisting of a president and eight commissioners, till the expulsion of the Order of St. John from Malta, which happened in the year 1798. The French republicans, by whom the island was then occupied, stripped the Monte of every article, whether in money or pawned goods, and inflicted a loss amounting to nearly £35,000, including the share of the proprietors of pawns, inasmuch as the advance they received on that security never exceeded one-half or two-thirds of the value of the articles pawned. Not a shilling of this sum was repaid by the French government after the restoration of monarchy; the rights of the Maltese being unrecognised in the capitulation of 1800. When the British forces took possession of La Valetta in September, 1800, this useful institution was enabled to resume operations. A new Board was elected, and about £4,000 advanced to them, without interest, from the local treasury. A loan was opened, to which individuals did not hesitate to contribute when they were assured that the institution considered itself bound to pay the old loan, though forming part of the amount carried away by the French, and that in the meantime interest would be allowed on it. The Monte possessing landed property to a much greater amount, could never refuse such an act of justice. Happily, the cessation of slavery put an end to the old charge for ransoms, and enabled the institution to devote its revenues to the payment of interest on the old loan, to the extinction of part of the capital, to the improvement of its property, and of late years to the assignment of £500 per annum in aid of the House of Industry.

† The Maltese are not merely a commercial but a manufacturing people: they excel in spinning and weaving cotton into coverlets, table-cloths, towelling, sails, blue-striped shirting, and dresses for the peasantry: the products of their looms have long been

Weights for gold, silver, pearl, precious stones, &c.

					Trepesa... ..	Cocci.
					Sedicesimo... ..	18
				Ottavo... ..	2 2 4	36
				Quarta... ..	2 4 8	72
				Oncia... ..	4 8 16 32	144
				Libbra... ..	12 48 96 192 384 672	576
				Rotoilo *... ..	24 30 120 240 480 960	1728
Pesa...	5	12½	150	600	1200 2400 4800	86400
Cantaro†	20	100	250	3000	12000 24000 96000	1728000

* A rotoilo is equal to 1½ lbs. English.
† A cantaro is equal to 17½ lbs. English.

† A cantaro is equal to 175 lbs. English.

Measures for every description of dry goods.

				Quarta..	144	Cocci.
				Oncia..	4	576
				Rotolo..	30 120	17280
				Pesa..	5 150 600	86400
				Cantaro..	20 100 3000 12000	1728000
				Pesata or Quintale*..	3 60 300 9000 36000	5184000

* Firewood is sold by the pesata of three cantars.

* Firewood is sold by the pesata of three cantars.

Measures for all grain and pulse, almonds, olives,
salt. &c.

		Half Misura...	Lumini.
		Misura...	2 10
	Mondello ..	10	20 100
	Tumulo ..	6 60	120 600
	Sacco ..	4 24	240 480 2400
Salma*	4 16	96 960	1920 9600

* One salma is equal to about $7\frac{1}{2}$ bushels, imperial measure. Wheat and barley are sold by the stricked, and all others by the heaped measure.

Long measure, for cloth, stone, &c.

		Linea..	12
	Police ..	12	44
	Palmo*..	12	144
	Cannat .. 8	96	1152
			13824

* Three-and-a-half palmi make an English yard, and 12 palmi in length, and one in thickness, make a *tratta*, by which measure ship timber and beams for houses are sold.

↑ 156 square canne are equal to one tumolo of land; 16 square tumoli are equal to one salma; the salma is equal to 4·4 English acres.

For all liquids : oil, milk, and honey excepted.

[illegible]

* The barrile is about equal to 9.37 imperial gallons.

celebrated in the regions bordering the Mediterranean. Diodorus Siculus pronounced their cotton cloths superior to any others in softness and fineness; and Cicero, in his oration against Verres, enumerates, among the articles of his plunder, certain cotton dresses remarkable for the delicate fabric peculiar to Malta, and speaks also of Maltese wine as forming another considerable item of the spoiler's booty. Black silk stuffs, of various kinds, are woven in the island; and the lace veils, gloves, and mittens knit by the nuns and other industrious women of Malta, are highly esteemed by the ladies of the various European capitals. In ship-building, cabinet-work, and joinery, the native citizens have attained a high degree of excellence; their vessels are substantially built, and sail swiftly. Furniture (including sofas, chairs, and many ornamental articles) is exported to Greece and the Ionian Isles, to Constantinople, Egypt, the Black Sea, and other places. The timber employed is chiefly obtained from the shores of the Adriatic. As goldsmiths, the Maltese are famed for the filligree-work which characterises their neck-chains, bracelets, and jewellery of various descriptions. Maltese sculptors have manifested considerable skill in carving figures from the easily worked stone of the native quarries, and large quantities of this material are carried to Turkey, Egypt, and other

Liquid measure, for oil and milk.

				Quartile	
				Misura..	4
			Terzo..	2½	10
				2	5
		Mezzo..			29
			Quartucci..	2	4
				4	10
		Quarta..		4	16
				8	16
		Half Caniso..	2	8	32
				16	32
		Caniso*	2	4	16
				16	16
			2	4	32
		Barile	2	4	128
				32	128

* A casso is about equal to 4.38 imperial gallons.

COMMERCE.—The trade of Malta during the continental war, subsequent to the year 1804, was very great ; but the plague, followed by the treaty of Paris, and the consequent throwing open of the Mediterranean ports, with other operating causes, materially lessened the importance of the place as a depôt.

The commerce is, however, still extensive: in 1853, the imports were valued at £1,137,344, and the exports at £721,765; a large part of the imports being British. The shipping inwards, in the same year, was, in number, 4,448; tonnage, 816,773: of this, 196,377 tons carried the English flag. The resources of the island are limited: about 45,000 acres are under crop for the production of food, the growth of cotton, of oleaginous seeds, &c. The importance of the position to England is unquestionable, not merely as a central shop for the sale of her goods along the shores of Sicily and Africa, but equally as a commanding maritime station, by which, in conjunction with Gibraltar, we are enabled to dispense with the large fleet otherwise indispensable to the maintenance of permanent supremacy in the Mediterranean.*

countries for building and paving. There are manufacturing for the construction of iron bedsteads, and for the preparation of leather, soap, macaroni, and other articles. Many millions of cigars are made annually, and find a ready sale in every neighbouring port. Cumin, anise, and other seeds are successfully cultivated for the European and American markets, and are deemed superior in quality to those produced elsewhere. The squill, grown and dried here, produces the best oxamel obtainable from that bulb. The oranges and lemons of Malta are excellent. The silkworm thrives; and if capital were invested in this branch of trade, it would probably yield large returns.

I visited Malta, and traversed the island; but am indebted to the works of Boisgelin, Hennen, Davy, Wilson, and Miede, for many of the facts in this section. Since the issue of my first *History of the Colonies*, twenty years ago, various improvements have been effected, under the sanction of the Crown, in the departmental administration; and many of the evils which then formed a just cause of complaint have been remedied. Taxes and duties that pressed unequally on industry have been abolished; natives are more freely admitted to public offices; and a more liberal view has been taken of the general value and capabilities of Malta.

SECTION X.—IONIAN ISLANDS.

THE septinsular group of the Ionian Isles is situated in the Ionian Sea, between 36° and 40° S. lat., and 20° and 28° E. long., and extends from the Albanian coast to the southern extremity of the Morean peninsula.

The ancient history of these famous islands, called by the Greeks "Frank Isles" (*Φραγκονησια*) is intertwined with the mythology of the Greeks and Romans, so that it is difficult for sober truth to find a starting point. The islands would appear to have been early colonised,—to have remained for many years as separate states, partially under the control of Corinth, and subsequently beneath that of Athens or of Sparta. During the invasion of Xerxes, the Ionians boasted of being second only in power to the Athenians; but at no period do they seem to have long maintained an independent position. When Pyrrhus, King of Epirus, invaded Italy, they co-operated with him: on the decline of the Grecian republics they became the prey of several successive conquerors, and were finally incorporated in the Roman empire, and included in the Achaia province. The Goths ravaged Ionia, and destroyed, it is said, many monuments of antiquity: the Vandals conquered the province, but it was recovered by Belisarius. For 250 years the islands were attached to the prefecture of Lombardy, and conjoined with that province or with Sicily; for the next 300 years they constituted a separate government, under the title of the Zema of Cephalonia.*

On the dissolution of the Greek empire, Ionia seems to have been ruled by chiefs of Norman extraction, and by princes of the house of Valois. About the middle of the 14th century, the islands (or at least Corfu) apparently belonged to Charles III., King of Hungary, Jerusalem, and Sicily. In 1386, Corfu, then in a wretched state, was placed by the Coreyreans under the protection of Venice, and remained steadily attached to the Venetian republic, subject to frequent assaults and spoiliations by the

Turks, from whom the islanders experienced a desperate assault in 1537-'38, when the Moslems commenced their efforts for the expulsion of the Venetians from the Morea, &c. On the downfall of the "Queen of the Adriatic," in 1797, the French took possession of Ionia, but evacuated the territory on the breaking out of the war in 1798-'99, when it was taken under the joint protection of Russia and Turkey; the former becoming, however, the dominant power.

The next phase was the transfer of the islands from Russia to France, in virtue of a secret agreement between Alexander and Napoleon, in 1807. In 1809, Zante was occupied by a British force, and subsequently Cephalonia, Ithaca, Cerigo, and Santa Maura: Corfu, protected by a strong French garrison, held out until 1814; and, on the abdication of Napoleon, was taken possession of by England. At the peace of 1815, the septinsular union was placed under the protection of the British Crown, and has so continued to the present day.

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CORFU, in lat. 39° N., and long. 20° E., situate a little to the eastward of the mouth of the Adriatic, 150 miles north of Santa Maura, and the present seat of government of the septinsular union, was described by Homer under the names *Scheria*† (*Σχέρια*) and (from Phaeace the son of Neptune) *Phaeacia*:—

"Then swelled to sight *Phœacia's* dusky coast,
And woody mountains, half in vapour lost;
That lay before him, indistinct and vast,
Like a broad shield amid the watery waste."

It was, however, previously known as *Drepanum* (*Δρεπάνον*) Callinach, or *Drepanon* (*Δρεπανον*), and Apollon, an epithet bestowed in allusion to its semicircular or sickle shape, and connected with some mythological fable. To this designation succeeded that of *Maeri*, by reason of its length from cape to cape (Sidero to Lefchimo), or, according to Neptune, who arrested the waters; but not before they had separated a portion of land from the continent. Others assert that *Scheria* is derived from the Phœnician word *schara* (commerce), indicating thereby that the inhabitants of this isle were from early times pre-eminent skilled in maritime and commercial affairs.

* See valuable *Notes and Observations on the Ionian Islands and Malta*: by Dr. John Davy; 2 vols. 8vo: London, 1842.

† *Scheria*, mythological records explain as a name given in consequence of the overflowing of the waves upon the banks of Epirus, covering a great space of territory. Ceres complained of the encroachment to

to Apollonius, in honour of Marceris, the daughter of Aristee; but among the Greeks and Romans its usual designation was *Corecra* (Κερκυρα), derived either from the granddaughter of Neptune, or from the Arabic word *Cacara*, signifying a land of peace and abundance; or from *Kekuris*, a peculiarly constructed ship, which the inhabitants were famed for building. The present name of Corfu (given after the destruction of the Eastern empire) is said to owe its origin to Κορυφή, or Κορφοί, or Κορυφω, to overtop; alluding to the hilly or turret-like rocks on which the modern citadel is built.

According to mythology, Phæace, the son of Neptune, was the first who established himself in the isle; and Plutarch says that Jason, on returning from Colchis, bearing with him the golden fleece, touched at the island, and celebrated there his nuptials with Medea, when Phæace was king; but of the Phæacian city not a vestige remains: the Corfuite antiquarians aver that it occupied the site of Corecra, the latter being built on the ruins of the former. Homer ascribes its colonisation to the Hyperians, who built a city and erected several temples to the gods. The successor to Phæace was said to be Alcinous, son of Nausithous; and then follows the story of Ulysses. According to Strabo, Arehias, King of Corinth, in voyaging to Sicily, left Chersicrates, with a part of his army, at Corfu, then named *Scheria*. Chersicrates, it is said, made himself master of the place by conquering the inhabitants: this event took place in the 19th Olympiad, about 700 years before the siege of Troy. Certain it is that the Scherians or Corecreans bore on their medals the winged horse, the well-known emblem of Corinth. Chersicrates made war upon and expelled the Liburnians, who inhabited the southern part of the island; and the new sovereign commenced his reign in Crisopolis, which Homer makes Ulysses gaze at in wonder, by reason of its magnificent buildings and temples. It is said to have continued subject to the mother country for upwards of a century; but in the wars between Corinth and Athens, the Corecreans sided with the latter, and, in imitation of them, abolished monarchy, and founded a republic in its stead. It would appear that the Corecreans maintained amicable but independent intercourse with the several Greek powers, and furnished an auxiliary force of vessels and men to aid in repelling the attack of Xerxes; but when

the anger of the fickle Athenians was excited against Themistocles, the Corecreans gave him shelter, and paid no heed to the insidious arguments or threats used to induce or compel the surrender of the brave commander.

The battle of Leucadia would appear to have been a vigorous attempt on the part of Corinth, aided by the Thebans, Leucadians, Cephalonians, &c., to crush the Corecreans, who, however, with the assistance of the Lacedæmonians and Athenians, almost totally destroyed the Corinthian fleet of 150 sail, under the command of Xenocides. The engagement was fought by the Corinthians advancing in line, and being received by their opponents with 106 vessels, formed into three columns placed in alternate squares.

During the war between the different republics of Greece, the Corecreans generally sided with the Athenians, and strenuously resisted the Lacedæmonians, who attempted the conquest of their island, the nobility of which favoured the latter people, and were in consequence entrapped and stoned to death in the temple of Juno by the democracy.

A detailed history of the island would be out of place here; it is sufficient to state briefly the leading events. Pyrrhus, King of Epirus, after several unsuccessful attempts, conquered Corecra, and made use of its fleet and marines in his attempts on Italy, which greatly weakened the Corecreans, whose commerce was almost annihilated by Teuca, Queen of the Illyrians, to whom they were subject in the century before our era; and, to check whose cruelties, the Corecreans were obliged to follow the example set them by the little Grecian republics, and place themselves under Roman protection.

The ambassadors sent by the Corecreans to Rome were, it is said, favourably received by the senate; the offer of becoming a province of the empire accepted, and the necessary assistance promised. During the domination of Rome, the Corecreans were converted to Christianity; and the weakness of the Eastern empire enabled them once more to enjoy a government of their own choice. Corfu, although desolated by Genseric and the Vandals in one century (A.D. 466), and by the Goths and Slavonians in another (A.D. 550), was able to assist the Emperor Heraclius against the Lombards (A.D. 638), and Leo the Isaurian

against the Saracens, during the siege of Constantinople, A.D. 717-'18. At the close of the 11th century, the naval power of Corfu seems to have been extinguished; for the island was occupied by Robert Guiscard, A.D. 1081, without offering the slightest resistance; but in the middle of the 12th century, the Corfaïtes aided the forces of the Emperor Emanuel Comnenus in driving out the Normans, to whom they had voluntarily yielded obedience a short time before; and, at the close of the century, Corfu was annexed to the principality of Epirus and Ætolia, formed by Michael Angelus Comnenus upon the division of the empire.* In the latter part of the 13th century, Corfu was conquered by Charles of Anjou, King of Naples; but the reverses sustained by his successors encouraged the people to assert their independence: the Neapolitan garrison was expelled, and a republican form of government established.

The growing power of the Genoese had begun to alarm the other Italian states; and the Venetians, perceiving the advantage to be derived from the possession of Coreyra or Corfu, on the 28th of May, 1386, entered into an agreement with the inhabitants, who, it is asserted by some, sold their liberty for 30,000 ducats; but this unauthenticated statement is probably founded on the circumstance of Zadislas, King of Naples, having ceded his claims on Corfu in 1401, for the sum above named.

Nothing of moment occurred until the growing power of the Turks in the Morea induced them to turn their attention to Corfu as a valuable acquisition. The chief fortress was besieged in 1537-'38, by Janus Beg and Cheredan Barbarossa, with the arms and fleet of Soleyman. Pesarò, who commanded at Corfu, stripped the galleys of their guns, and placed them on the ramparts and outworks,—sent the useless mouths out of the fortress into the interior, and enrolled 4,000 men under the orders of Venetian officers; the nobility forming a separate corps. Barbarossa and Janus landed their forces on the coast parallel to Potamos, encamping between that village and the town, and opened their batteries with such effect, that the Corfaïtes were driven from their commanding position on an eminence above the town. Their subsequent attempts were less successful; several sortics were made by the besieged; and the

Moslems beheld winter approach without having gained much ground. Meanwhile famine and plague made dreadful havoc in their camp, to reinforce which Soleyman dispatched 20,000 men, and followed them in person; but finding all hopes of conquest futile, he soon drew off the remnant of his shattered army.

From this time the island remained unmolested, until Achmet III., having conquered the Morea, resolved on the capture of Corfu with a force of 80,000 men. The Venetians, although much weakened by the loss of all the provinces and islands belonging to European Turkey, took active measures to enable Corfu to offer a vigorous defence. Several citizens were allowed to purchase orders of nobility; and with the money thus obtained, a force of 12,000 men was fitted out under Count Schulemburgh, who strengthened the fortifications, and placed the garrison in an efficient state of defence. On the 15th of July, 1716, Cogia Pasha, admiral of the Ottoman fleet, approached Corfu with twenty-two ships; he was met by the Venetian admirals Pisani and Cornari, whose force consisted of a squadron of galleys and galliots, under Pisani, and of ships under Cornari. Cogia being attacked and defeated by Pisani, put into Butrinto to repair and embark the troops destined for the siege,—landed a division at Vido, and opened a battery on the town and citadel of Corfu; the remainder came on shore below Potamos, and formed their camp about two miles from the extreme outworks of Fort Salvador, which, together with Fort Abraham, was captured by the Ottoman after several hard-fought contests. The seraskier endeavoured to storm the citadel in a night attack; Schulemburgh made a counter-sally with 2,000 resolute men, and surprised the Turks in the rear, upon which they fled in dismay, leaving 4,000 dead in the trenches. Among the slain was Mouchtar Bey, the grandsire of the celebrated Ali Pasha of Yanina, who played such an important part in the subsequent history of Greece. Mouchtar fell just as he had scaled the ramparts, and his sword was preserved in the armoury at Corfu until its occupation by the French. After repeated contests the Turks raised the siege, having lost 15,000 men, fifty-six pieces of cannon, several mortars, all the camp equipage, provisions, and the greater part of their baggage. The loss of the Venetians and Corfaïtes amounted

* Gibbon, vol. xi., pp. 247—253.

to 3,000. Pisani and Cornari pursued the Turkish fleet, captured several vessels, took possession of Butrinto, stormed Santa Maura, and put the whole of the Ottoman garrison to the sword. The Sultan was so exasperated at the result, that Admiral Cogia and the seraskier commanding the land forces suffered instant decapitation, by order of the fierce despot, in the very audience hall of Constantinople. The Turks made several other attacks on the island, as did also the Genoese; but the Venetians, aided by troops and funds from Austria, maintained their position for nearly 400 years.

The fall of Venice was the prelude to the transfer of Corfu to the French republic, the representatives of which took possession of the island in 1797, but were expelled by the Russian forces on the breaking out of the war in 1798-'99, when Turkey and Russia became its joint protectors. In 1807, hostilities between Russia and Turkey gave Ali, the Pasha of Yanina, a pretext for seizing on the continental towns then belonging to the Ionian republic; and by cutting off the supplies, deprived Corfu of the means of resisting General Berthier, who, with a French force of 17,000 men, arrived there and took possession, with the connivance of Alexander. Berthier was shortly afterwards relieved by General Donzelot, who remained at Corfu until the arrival of the British in 1814, when the island made a conditional surrender.

On the evacuation of the French, Sir James Campbell assumed the civil and military command of the Ionian States. General Campbell resigned the command to Sir Thomas Maitland, the governor of Malta, who, in 1817, proclaimed the constitution, in virtue of which the Ionian Islands are now governed by a lord high commissioner (representing the protecting sovereign), a senate, consisting of ten members (styled "the most illustrious"), with a president ("his highness"), and a legislative assembly ("the most noble"), composed of deputies from the different islands;—Corfu sending seven; Cephalonia, eight; Zante, seven; Santa Maura, four; Cerigo, one; and Paxo, one.

GEOGRAPHY, AREA, PHYSICAL ASPECT, MOUNTAINS, &c.—Corfu stretches from north to south in the form of a semicircle. On the north and west it is bounded by the Mediterranean, and on the north and east by the channel which separates it from Al-

bania, or the ancient Epirus. This channel, which runs nearly south-east and north-west, is about twenty-one geographical miles in length; the narrowest or northerly mouth, at Cape Karagol, is not two miles across; the southerly entrance, between Cape Bianco and Gomenizza, is about seven miles broad; and the widest part, in the neighbourhood of the town of Corfu, does not much exceed ten miles in breadth. The soundings, in the deepest water, vary from forty to fifty fathoms.

The length of the island is about thirty-five geographical miles; the breadth, at the north-eastern extremity, about twelve; from thence it gradually lessens to its southerly termination, Cape Bianco.*

Corfu is divided into four bailiwicks, or districts:—*Oros*, a mountainous district, on the north-west, comprises Cassopo (the ancient Cassiope), formerly famed for a temple of Jupiter. *Agiru*, a beautiful tract, of remarkable fertility, situated between the western and southern parts of the island. *Mezzo*, or the midland district, contains the city of Corfu. *Lefschimo*, to the south-east, is so called from the ancient Cape Leucimna, now Cape Bianco.

The aspect is decidedly mountainous, particularly towards the Mediterranean, the part opposite the Albanian coast being less elevated, and presenting hilly slopes. A chain of mountains runs throughout the whole length of the island from north to south, the highest point of which is Santa Dacca, estimated as rising 2,000 feet above the sea; another range extends in an east and west direction, appearing like a termination of the Albanian or Acroceraunian range, subterraneously continued from Corfu to the mainland. The chief summit of this cross-chain, now called St. Salvador, or *Πατοκράτωρ*, the *Phacacia*, according to some, or, as others think, the *Istone* of antiquity, is supposed to be from 2,800 to 3,000, or even 3,500 feet: the view from its summit is magnificent, and comprises the bold Acroceraunian mountains, and even those of Macedonia; the Adriatic sea to the northward, and the Mediterranean to the southward; in clear weather the continent of Italy itself is visible. The cross-chain is of a rugged character, with many minor collateral offsets in a north and north-west direction. Viewed from the shore, or from a

* These measurements are derived from those of the French engineers, as given by Baron Theotoki, and by Dr. Hennen, in the work to which I have referred when describing Malta.

vessel in mid-channel, the mountains appear to form a boundary, like an amphitheatre, round that part of the bay where Corfu city is built; while on the north-west the shore rises abruptly, here and there dotted with olive groves, and straggling, wild-looking villages. On the opposite side, the snow-capped mountains of Albania stand, with the ancient *Buthrotum* at their feet, in towering magnificence; the combination of forest, sea, lake, and mountain, presenting one of those splendid panoramas on which the eye loves to dwell, and reminding the spectator of the voyage of Æneas—

"Protinus ærias Phæacum abscondimus arces,
Litoraque Epiri legimus, portusque subinus
Chæonia, et celsam Buthroti ascendimus urbem."
Æneid, lib. iii., 291.

There are three islands in the harbour of Corfu, extending, in a horse-shoe shape, from the promontory of Cape Mandrachi to Cape Karagol: between these capes, by which an excellent roadstead for shipping is formed, lies Vido (the *Ptychia* of the ancients), the largest of these isles,—two-and-a-half miles in circumference, and one mile distant from the town; it is protected by five forts, and British troops. Candilonipos is a mere rock, within cannon-shot of Vido. St. Demetrius, or Quarantine Island, is about two miles east of Vido, and one-and-a-half from the mouth of the Govino harbour or bay, which has a narrow entrance, protected by a battery, and is defended on all sides from the wind by mountains and hills. Govino Bay is the chief naval station of the islands. To the north-east of Cape Sidero lies a small islet or rather rock, named Fano, the fabled residence of Calypso, the enchantress. After passing Cape Sidero, the coast-line winds for twenty miles until it forms St. Angelo. Beyond this cape are some fortified rocks called *Smadrachi*. The shore continues unmarked by any remarkable point as far as Gardiki, and thence on to Cape Bianco (the southernmost point of Corfu), a conical cliff rising from the sea, known by the name of Lefehimo, from λευχίμων, signifying whiteness.

The city of Corfu, which the inhabitants say was founded by Æneas as a rival to the ancient Phæacia, is built on an irregular promontory, sloping to the north-west, which juts out nearly from the central portion of the eastern shore; the promontory resembles a triangle, the base being united to the island, and the apex directed towards Albania, with a semicircular bay on either side.

The citadel, or old fort, is built at the very extremity of the triangle. It is remarkable for two rocky eminences (the "*ærias arces*" of Virgil), which add greatly to the natural beauty of the scene. The triangular promontory was by nature peninsular, but has been completely separated from the mainland by a military work or ditch, about 150 yards in length, eighty in breadth, and forty in depth. The sea enters freely at the northern mouth of this ditch; but at the southern end stands a wall of separation. The communication with the esplanade is by a drawbridge. Within the citadel, whose circumference is 180 yards, are the old palace, an armoury (now used as an English chapel and school), barracks, artillery stores, an hospital, several houses (formerly private property, but now chiefly occupied by officers connected with the government or the army), and one or two churches of the Greek communion. No regular plan is observable in these buildings, except the barracks and the palace; all the others have been placed hap-hazard, or where a level surface presented itself for a site. The palace, immediately opposite the drawbridge, has some architectural pretensions. The barracks are on the northern face of the citadel.

The esplanade commences at the ditch which insulates the citadel, and extends about 450 yards in length from shore to shore, sloping very gradually from south to north: breadth, from east to west, about 180 yards. It is perfectly free from buildings on the southern side; on the northern are situated the new palace and the old hospital. One small Greek church projects somewhat beyond the line of the houses of the town, and is the only solid building that can be said at all to encroach on it. This open space forms the parade for the troops, and has been much improved by levelling and ornamental planting, and by the erection of an elegant fountain over a tank, towards the southern extremity. The position is singularly picturesque: looking from the town, the citadel stands in front; the mountains of Albania form a stately background; and the sea closes in on either hand. A carriage-drive has been formed, and the parade has become a place of common resort for the inhabitants and the garrison, for their walks and rides.

The circumference of the town, exclusive of the esplanade, is 2,800 yards; it is separated from the rest of the island by a strong

double circumvallation, which bounds it to the westward.

The "new fort," built at the latter end of the 16th century, is overlooked by Mount Abraham, a hill at a small distance from the walls. Towards the land side, chains of outworks and forts extend from the city to Lake Calachiopulo: in addition to, and beyond these, the French constructed strong lines, defended by bastions and redoubts, at intervals with a deep wet ditch stretching from the suburb of Castrades almost across the isthmus; in the erection of which the French lost 500 men from sickness. The works are very strong, are mined, and amply provided with the various munitions necessary for defence; but, from their great extent, 10,000 soldiers would be required to man them.

Corfu city, especially on its flanks, is quite a labyrinth. In the centre, or nearly opposite the entrance to the citadel, stands a range of tolerably good-looking houses, with piazzas, having an eastern aspect; from behind these, two or three principal streets, and as many of a secondary character, run from east to west, and are irregularly crossed by streets and lanes—narrow, straggling, and following no precise direction, being built, apparently, as the nature of the ground dictated. In these irregular passages, the gables of some of the houses and the fronts of others are intermixed; several are approached by steps, which are either of ordinary construction, or formed by ledges of the rock, converted into rude stairs. Anciently, outside staircases projected from almost all the houses; but these incumbrances have now been removed from the more frequented streets. Some superior dwellings are scattered through the town, and on the rampart facing the harbour; but the general habitations are of a very ordinary character, consisting of two or three stories, each containing a large hall and a few apartments leading off from it.*

The number of religious edifices is very considerable; but the metropolitan church of the Greeks possesses (in their estimation) a great treasure, viz., the body of St. Spiridon, patron of the island, whose flesh, it is said, yields to the touch, though he has been dead many hundred years. The Corfiots aver that the Venetians made several attempts to carry off the body; and various strange legends are told respecting the supernatural manner in which this

nefarious design was frustrated. The interior of the church is decorated with chandeliers, lamps, candelabras, &c., of pure gold and silver, chiefly the offerings of the worshippers. The senate-house is a plain, square building, in which the courts of law are held. The palace of St. Michael and St. George, occupying one side of the esplanade, along which its front extends, is built of Malta stone, and ornamented with a fluted Doric colonnade. On the west side a line of uniformly built houses, arched and pilastered, form with the palace nearly a parallelogram, two sides of which are closed and the other open, with grounds tastefully laid out in the centre. The theatre was originally intended for an exchange, and, with the other public buildings, requires no especial notice.

Rivers.—Strictly speaking, there are none; but throughout the whole island many streams run amid marshy valleys.

Fountains.—The two most classical and most copious, called the "Fountains of Cresida," are supposed to be close to the spot described by Homer as the scene of the famous interview between Nausicaa and Ulysses.

Lakes and Marshes, of fresh water, are found in all directions in the environs of the harbour, and amid the valleys of the more distant hills.

Salt-water Lakes.—The principal, at Govino, formed the old Venetian harbour, which is screened by surrounding hills from almost every wind, and situated about five miles to the north-west of the citadel; but sand and mud are rapidly accumulating within its basin, and a number of marshy spots are found along its banks: the entrance always narrow, is becoming yearly more circumscribed, and large ships are already excluded thence. In 1799, when the Ionian republic was under Russian and Ottoman protection, a squadron belonging to the two nations anchored there: yet in February, 1822, Dr. Hennen, while surveying in a small pleasure yacht of less than fifty tons burthen, frequently came in close contact with the mud. It is from three to four miles in circumference, exclusive of the marshy banks. The Venetians had their docks here, and the ditches, with other traces of these works, are still to be seen. Lake Calachiopulo, not more than a mile in a direct line from the works, estimated at from three to four miles in circuit, is celebrated by Homer as the harbour of the ancient Phæacians, and the little island at

* Hennen, p. 173.

its entrance represents the ship which, on its return from Ithaca, after having conveyed Ulysses thither, was turned into a rock. On its banks were situated the garden of Aleinous—according to the poet's tale.

Canals there are none: but a work which was cut by the French with the view of strengthening their position in the town of Corfu, by forming a fortified communication from the Lake of Calachiopulo to the Bay of Castrades, has been ranked under this head. This undertaking was commenced some time in 1810; but when the French evacuated the island, on the 14th of July, 1814, it was not half finished, although fatigue parties of 2,000 men daily, furnished by an army upwards of 10,000 in number, had been at work on it for a considerable time. This ditch is cut with salient and re-entering angles, &c., after the manner of a regular fortified line, along the bottom of the promontory of Monte Ascensione, the eastern boundary of Calachiopulo; it communicated with the lake, but not so efficiently as to allow of a free flow of the waters: at present the communication is nearly cut off, especially in summer. The French did not remain long enough to connect the channel with the sea at Castrades. The whole extent of the ditch, as it was left by them, beginning from Castrades, at the distance of 375 English yards from the sea-side, and following it along its whole line to the end behind Fort St. Salvador, was 996 French toises of nine feet each. Its breadth, at present, varies from twenty-eight to sixty English feet; in some of the intermediate points it is twenty-four feet broad; in others, 45½ feet. The depth of water varies from three to nine English feet. In consequence of the indisputable unhealthiness of these ditches, the government, in 1819, caused nearly the whole of that branch which extended from the back of St. Salvador to its communication with Calachiopulo (or 456 French toises) to be filled up—a work which lasted forty days, and employed 234 peasants.

GEOLOGY AND SOIL.—The mountains of Corfu are chiefly composed of a compact limestone, destitute of any organic remains, but with occasional strata of flint, precisely similar to the Albanian mountains. In some places carbonate of lime alternates with strata of vegetable earth; and is often found tinged with oxide of iron, and presenting, when fractured, beautiful arborescences. Fibrous, crystallized, and granular gypsum

abounds, principally disseminated in argillaceous deposits; breccia in immense masses, either purely calcareous, or with a mixture of silice, is frequently observable; in some spots carbonate of lime is mixed with nodules of sulphur, or with coarse jasper: and Dr. Benza, in one spot, found the rare mineral dolomite. There is a quarry of white marble under the western peak of St. Salvador, of a very fine grain, and well adapted for statuary; and variegated marble is found in small masses widely scattered. The substance known on the continent as Corfu alabaster, is a fine gypsum. The lesser hills have an argillaceous soil, mixed with lime: the substratum to all the low and cultivated lands in the island, is principally a stiff tenacious clay, very retentive of moisture, and extremely fertile.

The island is not apparently of volcanic production, but would appear to have been separated from the mainland by some violent convulsion of nature. Earthquakes, however, are not uncommon, and are supposed to originate in the island itself, and to bear no relation to shocks in neighbouring localities; they generally run from north-west to south-east, and are slight; but in 1745, one shock was so severe as to destroy the palace, bishop's house, and many other buildings. In May, 1819, a severe shock in the interior of the island stopped a copious spring. The great earthquake which, a few years since, made such dreadful havoc in Santa Maura and Zante, was not felt at Corfu.

CLIMATE.—Nearly tropical; but the physical sensations are influenced more by the winds than by the alternations of the mercury in the thermometer. On an average of four years, the thermometer ranged from 44° to 91°; the general annual average of rainy days for the four years being 96½. It appears that there is not a month in the year in which rain does not fall for a greater or less number of days; but November and December, February and March, are the most rainy. Snow is seldom seen, but sometimes the summit of St. Salvador is covered with scattered patches, which remain for ten or twelve days. On the Albanian mountains the snow falls generally about the end of November,* and continues till May.

Botta† asserts, that in his time the maxi-

* I saw them capped with snow at the close of October, 1845.

† *Storia Naturale e Medica dell' Isola di Corfu*; Milano Anno vii., 12mo.

imum of heat of different years did not vary more than 3° or 4° , but that the minimum of cold often varied 6° , 8° , or 10° . Mr. Starkie's tables contradict this. In four years the lowest degree of cold ranged from 45° , 46° , 46° , 44° ,—only 2° difference; while the highest degrees of heat were, for the same four years, 89° , 90° , 91° , 85° ,—or 5° of difference.

Winds.—It is difficult in Corfu to ascertain the quarter whence the wind blows; on inquiring of a sailor, the answer will be—"I cannot say what it is outside." When a cloud rises from St. Salvador summit, it is generally succeeded by a north-west wind, scattering the fogs and vapours, as described by Homer:—

"The low-hung vapours, motionless and still,
Rest on the summit of the shaded hill;
Till the mass scatters as the winds arise,
Dispersed and broken through the ruffled skies."
Iliad, 5th Book.

Dr. Hennen thinks that the peculiar winds of Corfu depend upon the local situation of the island. The usual remark of the Corfiots is, that their country forms one side of a funnel, very narrow and winding at the mouth, dilated in the middle, and again contracted at the extremity. Two somewhat transverse funnels lie at the extremities of the longitudinal one, formed by the channel which divides Corfu from the mainland of Greece. The first and largest of these is that extremity of the Adriatic which extends from Durazzo to the Straits of Otranto, and lies to the northward; violent eddies and irregular blasts sweep along the coast of this great inland sea. The second is formed by the more distant gulfs of Arta and Prevesa,* which lie to the southward. An easterly breeze commences in them daily, soon after sunrise, and continues till near noon. At about three in the afternoon a westerly wind sets in, lasting until nightfall; and so regular is this alternation, that it requires a strong gale in the Mediterranean to interrupt it: the current also follows these successive changes; and the joint effects are sensibly felt even to the westward of Paxo, and far beyond the southern extremity of Corfu. The eastern boundary of the channel or canal of Corfu is formed of lofty and precipitous mountains, covered for more than half the year with snow; and the breaks and gullies give

a direction to the winds corresponding to that particular point upon which they strike. This, of course, varies with the angle of incidence; and the effect is uniform only in one particular, viz., the cold communicated by the snow to the passing column of air.

The result of these diverse inflections of the wind is, that vessels may frequently be seen steering different courses in the channel, with the breeze "right aft" for each. Thus it often happens that a ship is coming through the north channel, and another through the south, both before the wind, while in mid-channel a perfect calm may prevail, or, what is more probable, the wind may be veering rapidly to all points of the compass. These currents do not appear to extend to any great height, for the shipping is often affected by the breeze, while the flag at the citadel, about 120 feet above the level of the sea, lies motionless on the flagstaff.

The most frequent winter and autumnal winds in the town of Corfu, are those from the E., E.S.E., S., and S.E. In spring and summer they come chiefly from the N., N.N.E., N.E., and E.N.E. They are rarely violent for more than three or four days; but often continue in the same point for a longer period: those from a northward direction, which come sweeping over the mountains of Epirus, are cold; but all from the southward are oppressively hot, accompanied with mist and rain. The hazy and humid south-east wind, called the Sirocco, as felt at Corfu, is not to be compared in intensity and injurious effect to that experienced in Sicily.

Fevers, especially of the remittent and intermittent types, are of frequent occurrence, and form nearly two-fifths of the total admissions into the hospitals. Dysentery and diarrhoea are also of frequent occurrence. Phthisis and pulmonic inflammations are alleged alike in Malta, Gibraltar, and Minorca, to bear a proportion of one to two-and-a-half to all the other fatal complaints. The plague has several times appeared; and of twenty-eight cases treated in 1816, only three recovered. The process of parturition is extremely easy; twins are common, and triplets not rare. In December, 1807, a Jewess brought forth five children at the seventh month, three of them alive. In point of longevity, the Corfiots are on a par with the other natives of

* The Gulf of Prevesa is the name given to that portion of the ocean which lies between Santa Maura and Paxo.

southern Europe, and many old people are to be seen among them. Within the last fifty years, thirty-five males and thirty-six females died upwards of ninety, and five males and three females at upwards of 100; one of them 116. Deformity is a rare occurrence among the Corfiots, and monstrosity still more so. In one or two families children have been born with six fingers, and this had continued for four generations. Goitrous persons and cretins are unknown.

VEGETABLE KINGDOM.—The olive is the principal production of Corfu, yielding in favourable years nearly 10,000,000 gallons of oil. The small grape, from which the well-known dried currants are prepared, is next in importance; flax is raised in considerable quantities; but of corn, not more than suffices for four or five months' consumption is grown in the island. Various woods are found in the mountains, but none of them adapted for ship-building; yet the list includes several sorts of oak, in particular the *Balanía*, or *Valonia* (*Quercus Ægilops*), the acorn of which affords a useful dye-stuff. Cyprus and palm-trees are common, and the plains are in many places covered with the *cactus indicus*, *agave castus*, *salvia pomifera*, myrtle and other odiferous plants; potatoes and various vegetables are excellent; as are also numerous fruits, including the fig, orange, citron, pomegranate, melon, apricot, peach, plum, pear, apple, &c. Several medicinal plants flourish, such as the *colchicum*, *hyoscyamus*, *momordica*, *elaterium*, *scilla maritima*, *ricinus*, *smilax aspera*, &c.

ANIMAL KINGDOM.—There are no animals peculiar to the island, and, owing to the scarcity of pasture, few cattle are maintained. It is a curious fact that dogs are reared with difficulty: hares and rabbits are met with, but deer and other large game are unknown. Birds of prey (*accipitres*) are rare in Corfu. Vultures, hawks, and owls, are occasionally seen. Of the orders *picæ*, *coracæ*, and *passeræ*, the variety to be met with (particularly of the latter) is very great; and they are almost indiscriminately used for food by the Corfiots. Among the *gallinæ*, the domestic fowls are good and plentiful; but the turkey is principally imported from Albania and the Morea. Pigeons, both tame and wild, of different species, are found in vast numbers. Partridges, both of the common and red-legged kind, are plentiful. The *tetrao*

coturnix (or quail, a migratory bird) is, in the season, very abundant, as are also most of the migratory birds of Europe.

Among the *grallæ*, storks and herons are occasionally met with; but the *scolopax rusticola*, or woodcock, is found in the greatest profusion; many, also, are imported from Albania. Snipe, red-shank, plover, and other species of *scolopax*, are also abundant. Of the *anseræ*, or water-fowl, the supply is immense, including many species of the *anas* or duck tribe, as wild duck, widgeon, teal, &c.

In the markets of Corfu may be observed a variety of fish, the principal of which are as follows:—Among the cartilaginous fishes, various species of the genus *raia*, especially skate, and varieties of the genus *squalus*, especially dog-fish. The beautiful *pegasus draconis* (or sea-horse) is often found. Of the *acipenseræ*, the sturgeon is occasionally seen. Of the *apodes*, eels and sword-fish: of *jugulares*, the star-gazer (*uranoscopus*), the weever (*trachinus draco*), the blenny, the whiting, and the pollack, are the most common: of *thoracici*, the *echeneis remora*, or sucking-fish, is very common; and, though rejected even by the shark, is eaten by the lower orders of the Corfiots. The john dory, the plaice, the sole, various species of the sparus, or gilt-head, the perch, the pilot-fish, the mackerel, the bonito, the dolphin, miller's thumb, the little sea scorpion, and the mullet of the Romans (*mullus barbatus*), are found: and of the *abdominales*, the anchovy, the trout, pike, tench, and the roach. The river fish are imported from Albania. The most noted fish of Corfu is the *mullet cephalus*, or grey mullet. It is caught in great quantities in the Lake of Calachiopulo, and called *chufali*, probably from the great size of its head. It is a delicious fish, and from its roe, mixed with that of another species caught in Bucintro, the Corfiots prepare their *botargo*: they first salt the roes, then smoke, and preserve them in oil.

Of *mollusca*, the star-fish, cattle-fish, and *echinus*, are very abundant. Many of this class are dried, and form a common article of food; they are glutinous if well dressed, but otherwise tough and leathery. Of *crustacea*, the crab, craw-fish, and shrimp, are plentiful; and the lobster is frequently met with. Of *testacea*, the razor-fish, pinna, oyster, mussel, and scallop, are abundant; and in Calachiopulo, the cockle is found in vast quantities, and of excellent

quality. Of the *cetaceous* tribe, the *delphinus phocæna*, or porpoise, and the *delphinus delphis*, or dolphin, of the ancients, are very common.

Many, if not most of the fish exposed for sale in Corfu, come from the coast of Albania. The Corfiots assert that, since the last siege, the fish have been frightened away from their shores.

The principal fisheries are Calachiopulo, Govino, and the neighbourhood of Gervolio and Bucintoro. The means employed are nets, the line, and occasionally an intoxicating substance called "Splono." The basis of this is *verbascum*, a plant which in England is commonly looked upon as merely mucilaginous, but viewed by Haller and Linnaeus as an anodyne. Some species of *euphorbium* are used for a similar purpose. Dr. Hennen says that, when striving to catch *polypi*, *echinides*, and cuttle-fish, the fishermen throw a few drops of oil on the surface of the water, which having thus rendered calm, they drop the bait and speedily secure their prey. Mordo speaks of a fish caught in a valley near Corissia,

which, though of a very delicate flavour, is unwholesome. Coral is found in small quantities near Cape Sidero and Cape Bianco: it was formerly an object of commerce. Corallina is also found upon the coast of Corfu; and sponge and many other zoophytes abound.

Venomous reptiles are either unknown or very scarce. Among the harmless kinds, are the land tortoise, the frog, common lizard, and the well-known *coluber beres*, or adder. Corfu is infested with insects; including the tick, by whose ravages so many museums have been destroyed; *chrysomela*, of various species; *lampyris*, or glow-worm; *blatta*, or cockroach; *mantis*; *meloe*; a great variety of *papiliones*; the *gryllus*, *cicada*, *tipula*, &c., &c. The beautiful moth *phalaena junonia*, is occasionally seen, as also the *lepisma*, the *scotopendra*, and the *scorpio europæus*, whose bite, however, is not poisonous.

POPULATION.—Corfu being the capital of the seven isles, I proceed to show in this place the entire population; reserving, however, details regarding each island.

Population of the Ionian Islands from 1824 to 1854.

Years.	Population.		Total.	Persons employed in			Births.	Marriages.	Deaths.
	Males.	Females.		Agriculture.	Manufacture.	Commerce.			
1824	—	—	175,902	—	—	—	—	—	—
1827	—	—	180,301	—	—	—	—	—	—
1828	104,625	90,698	195,323	40,783	9,508	4,804	6,159	1,196	5,332
1829	101,611	88,287	189,898	37,813	7,574	4,418	5,006	1,186	5,018
1830	100,447	87,027	187,474	34,646	6,111	3,693	5,861	1,431	5,498
1831	99,554	88,836	188,390	38,883	5,793	3,669	6,127	1,314	4,673
1832	103,394	89,452	192,846	33,371	5,329	4,408	5,776	1,564	4,306
1833	103,679	90,588	194,416	39,768	6,092	104	5,897	1,400	5,013
1834	103,920	90,475	194,395	41,042	5,529	4,363	6,242	1,424	4,818
1854	123,436	105,727	229,163	—	—	—	5,843	—	5,363

Population by Islands in the Year 1854.

Islands.	Area in sq. miles.	Males.	Females.	Aliens, &c.	Mouths to sq. mile.	Births.	Deaths.
Corfu	227	37,796	32,736	9,760	250	2,654	1,465
Cephalonia	311	38,524	31,957	1,993	233	1,687	1,379
Zante	161	20,757	17,870	436	243	805	1,511
Santa Maura	156	10,678	9,365	—	130	529	440
Ithaca	44	5,936	5,412	—	258	292	229
Cerigo	116	7,016	5,991	52	112	350	223
Paxo	26	2,729	2,396	45	200	126	120
Total	1,041	123,436	105,727	12,330	220	5,843	5,363

In 1802, the population of Corfu was 42,926; in 1832, 59,839; in 1854, 70,532.

The Ionians retain the physical contour of their Grecian ancestors. The upper and front parts of the skull are well developed; the features pleasing and intelligent. The complexion, in healthy persons, inclines towards olive; that of the higher

class of the females, who are not exposed to the sun, and lead a secluded life, is often clear and white. That of the peasantry is, of course, much affected by the sun. Those who reside in the Lefchimo district in particular, and in the neighbourhood of marshes, generally have a sickly leucoplegmatic cast. The eyes are brilliant

and full in both sexes, and mostly dark-coloured; the teeth good; the hair usually brown or black, and bushy in the men; the beard copious; the figure of the middle height, sometimes beyond it, and indicative of activity if not of strength. The constitution is often of a sanguine and choleric cast; the gestures vivacious; the gait erect and elastic, and the enunciation voluble and emphatic.* The females are, in general, well formed, many of them are handsome; but their beauty soon decays.

The Corfiots are abstemious in all matters relating to diet, with the one exception of the universally immoderate use of tobacco. Dancing is a favourite amusement, and their national figure is supposed to be the same with the ancient Pyrrhic dance: a circle is formed by men and women joining handkerchiefs; it opens, and the leading person goes through numerous evolutions in forming and re-forming the circle; sometimes completely; again only to half its extent; very often the leader passes through the middle of the waving line, under the uplifted hands of his associates, and is followed by the whole train: after a variety of movements which seem entirely arbitrary, the chief actor is succeeded by another, who in return alone directs the entire assemblage. There is another dance, principally executed by men, in which they form circular and other figures, and use considerable muscular exertion, leaping from the ground and stamping upon it with great energy.

The open air is the usual scene of these performances. Theatrical amusements, singing, music, and village *fêtes*, are all popular among the Corfiots. Their instruments are the fife, lute, guitar, violin, and drum. Amongst the most interesting diversion of the Corfiots, is the "*chiostra publica*." This is in imitation of the former knightly custom of tilting in the ring. The *chiostra* generally takes place in the summer. A long course of strong wood-

work is erected on the esplanade; about two-thirds of the way a string is drawn across on the tops of two elevated posts, and from it is suspended the ring; the latter is divided into a certain number of circles, and the candidate who hits nearest and fairest in the inner one, wins the prize, which is sometimes a sword of considerable value. Seats are erected on each side the course for the accommodation of the spectators. The judges take their places in front of the ring. The principal people usually assemble, together with a vast concourse of the lower orders. The "*preux chevaliers*" who engage in the affair are gaily dressed, mounted on richly caparisoned steeds, attended by squires, and armed with lances above six feet long, terminating in a sharp steel point.†

The Ionians waste much time in a state of listless idleness, for which the numerous festivals of their church afford them ample opportunity; and Cicero's remark on the "*summum Græcorum otium*" of their ancestors, is applicable to these modern Greeks. Unfortunately, it is not only a too strong appreciation of the "*dolce far niente*" which travellers have accused the Ionians of inheriting. The proverbial *Græce mendax* is likewise laid to their charge, together with litigation, love of intrigue, revenge, inordinate vanity, and a long train of vices and defects.‡

That they are sunken and debased, is too true; but it should be remembered that so are every people who have been long subject to the demoralising influence of despotism, priestly and political, by which every noble faculty has been kept down, and a fearful impulse given to the host of evil passions which infest the unregenerate heart of man. From one of these crushing chains the Ionians are free; and, as education spreads, we may reasonably hope that the glorious liberty of the Gospel may banish the gross superstitions of the Greek church, and enable its members to regain the lofty position, in general, has been greatly debased by their long endurance of Turkish and Venetian tyranny, as exerted on the continent and in the islands, is agreed on all sides, and is consonant with what the history of man has in every age presented to our view; but one of the principal causes is to be found in the depravity and ignorance of their clergy. Many of these persons can barely read their breviary: few, if any, acts of private atrocity, or rebellion, have occurred in the islands, which have not been planned and in part executed by the priests; and, according to Dr. Hennen, the very gangs of robbers or pirates have their regular chaplain.

* Hennen.

† Kendrick.

‡ Dr. Hennen gives a very melancholy picture of Ionia. The clergy, he says, are taken from the scum of the population, and are, with few exceptions, illiterate, superstitious, and immoral. The nobles are without honour, the merchants without integrity, and the peasantry ignorant and degraded to the most abject degree. This lamentable decadence is described as being peculiar to no class of society, but as pervading all ranks, from the palace (and every house of more than ordinary size is called a palace) to the cottage. That the Greek

tion they once held, and, by the blessing of God, may yet regain.

So long as the Ionians remained under the Neapolitan rule, little or no improvement could be expected; and the ascendancy of the lion of St. Mark wrought, of course, no great change in their moral condition. The criminal guilty of ten murders, was punished with ten years of the galleys; whilst the offence of having once spoken disrespectfully of one high in office, received a similar sentence; hence a powerful incentive was given to great crimes, and the national tendency to obsequious flattery fostered. The Venetian policy was to foment discord in the neighbouring states of the Osmanli, and stipendiary hordes of miscreants were retained for that purpose: the provisions requisite for the garrison of Corfu were purchased from these brigands, and paid for with munitions necessary for carrying on their systematic plunder. Criminals and outlaws of all descriptions found shelter with these marauders; and the fugitives remained in their haunts until they had amassed sufficient wherewith to purchase oblivion, bringing, on their return, the evil habits acquired during years of licentiousness; the worst crimes being consequently committed with impunity, so far as any active interference on the part of the state was concerned. Among the lower classes, education was utterly neglected, and the peasantry were in the most degraded state of ignorance. In the higher and more opulent families, it was customary to send children to the universities of Padua and Venice, where they learned to despise their native language, its practice being forbidden in the law or other courts, and its use held as degrading to any but menials. Commerce was diverted from its legitimate channels, or so trammelled with restrictions as to become subservient to the aggrandisement of Venice alone; thus baffling every prospect of honourable occupation for the Ionians, and forcing those bred to the sea into a life of piracy. Under the dominion of neither France or Russia was the state of Ionia improved; the sway of either power was of so short duration, or they were so much engaged in weightier matters, as to pay little attention to the islands.

With the British a brighter period commenced—improvements rapidly advanced; and it is only just to state that moral reform has kept pace with external progress. Nothing tended more to ameliorate the

state of the islands than the disarming of the population. Prior to this act, a dagger and pistols formed part of the national costume; hence, on the slightest excitement, these were put in requisition, and assassination, with its train of attendant miseries, followed. On the promulgation of any edict inimical, or supposed to be inimical, to the inhabitants of a district, the people assembled, set the civil force at defiance, and frequently required large bodies of military to restore order; happily, their disarmament put an end to scenes of the kind, and deeds of violence are not now more frequent than in other countries.

In many points of character, the Ionian differs materially from the continental Greek;—he is quick to devise, prompt in execution, and surprisingly intelligent. He has more enterprise, but is less scrupulous in the means he employs, than the Moreot;—in religious matters he has as much bigotry, and more bombast in relating his actions. That most efficient Grecian weapon, the tongue, is ever ready; but the refinement of the Asiatic or Fanariote Greek is wanting. No people are more patient under privation; hunger, thirst, heat, and cold, they endure with undaunted resolution. A morsel of black bread, a few olives, an onion, and his capote,—thus fed and sheltered, the Ionian, supported by climate and constitution, is contented and happy.

The Corfiot gentleman is stigmatised as “subtle and adroit, cloaking his evil qualities under the mask of courtesy.”* At the period of these remarks there was doubtless much truth in them: the islanders had in a very short space been subjected to so many rulers, that on Great Britain assuming the supremacy, the better class of Greeks hardly knew what course to pursue; and even now, there is a strong inclination to inflated compliments, sometimes approaching to servility. Those vices at which human nature revolts, are at the present day held in just abhorrence and detestation; and examples are not wanting in the higher classes of individuals whose conduct would do honour to any age or country, by the practice of the virtues which grace society, and the self-denying promotion of measures calculated to increase the welfare of their countrymen.

From the long dominion of the Venetians, society altogether took its tone from

* Goodison's *Ionian Islands*.

that people; and many of their old customs are still retained. Formerly the females of rank were closely secluded, rarely or never mingling with the males. Their accomplishments seldom extended beyond an acquaintance with the mysteries of the tambour-frame. At times a soft dark eye might be seen peering from the corner of a *jalousie*, or *verandah*—and nothing more. At present the Ionian ladies participate freely in all public amusements, such as balls, *fêtes*, and entertainments, which at Corfu are very frequent during the winter months; English and Greeks mingling together in their enjoyments with all the refinement and ease common to the most polished assemblies, the variety of costume and language giving these meetings a charm rarely found in similar *réunions* in other countries. The reputation of the fair Ionians formerly stood on no very high ground as regarded chastity; and it is to be lamented that frequency of divorce still forms a strong feature in the social state of affairs.

With the Russians, although of the same religion, there was little reciprocity of feeling, and still less with the French; and on Great Britain becoming the protecting power, the islanders mixed little with them, their meetings being confined to visits of ceremony. The present good understanding which animates all parties, is mainly attributable to the hospitality of the several presidents of the senate, first commenced by Baron Theotoki, whose presidency gave a striking example of refined and elegant hospitality.

The dress of the Corfiots has greatly changed of late years, that is, as far as the higher orders are concerned, the English and French fashions being adopted by them; but the peasantry have made no alteration in their ancient dress. A wide capote of thick felt (the principal material of which is goats' hair) forms their chief winter garment; exchanged in summer for a coarse shaggy woollen cloth, with an additional article of the same material to ward off rain or unusual cold. The capote is very rarely taken off; the under dress is a woollen vest, large breeches of coarse cotton, called *thoraké*, with cloth leggings, and a coarse sandal of undressed hide, secured by thongs, or a shoe of half-dressed leather scarcely less rude. This is the national dress of the aboriginal peasantry; but the settlers, whether Albanians, Moreots, or others, re-

tain traces of their native costume, as the red skull-cap, the turban, &c., &c. A girdle, or zone, of silk or cotton, is almost invariably worn round the waist by both sexes. The better classes wear very picturesque attire, composed of a double-breasted vest, usually made of blue or maroon-coloured velvet, with a double row of hanging gold or silver buttons, descending from the shoulder to the waist, generally bordered with broad gold lace, and fastened with a sash of coloured silk; Cossack trowsers, cut short at the knee, or the white Albanian kilt or petticoat; white stockings and buckled shoes complete the dress. The hair floats loosely on the shoulders of the men; the women wear it plaited, and hanging down to the heels, the head being covered with a gay kerchief.

The fair sex seem to delight in loading themselves with as much clothing of coarse cotton, silk, or brocade, as they can procure; and are passionately fond of every species of ornament, especially necklaces, ear-rings, and girdle buckles. The vests are made like those of the men, of rich velvet ornamented with gold lace, and flowing open; beneath is worn a beautiful cestus, or girdle, fastened in front by a clasp of gold or silver, and highly wrought. The petticoats are of pink or blue, richly bordered and spangled; the costume fitting closely to the waist all round: high-heeled shoes, with very large silver buckles, complete the attire. Many of them tinge the nails and tips of the fingers of a pink colour, and the practice of inserting powdered antimony along the edges of the eyelids is very common, especially among such as come from the islands of the Archipelago. This application gives a certain degree of brilliancy to the eyes; but the dark, lustrous, almond-shaped orbs of a Greek require but little aid from art, and fully justify the term of "ox-eyed," so frequently applied to them. Cosmetics and perfumes are much used.

Mats are spread on the floors of the poorest cottagers; but, generally speaking, in the towns, and in the better order of houses in the villages, there is to be found a good bed, stuffed with wool, hair, or straw, and placed either on a regular bedstead, or on boards and tressels. In lieu of blankets, a counterpane, thickly quilted and stuffed with wool, forms a common and comfortable substitute. The Greek females pride themselves on the elegance of their beds, which are covered with silk and embroidered counterpanes, and adorned with orna-

mental pillows, in proportion to the fortune and luxurious habits of the owner. The generality of the middle, and the whole of the lower order of people, sleep in their ordinary clothes, and rarely change their personal or bed linen oftener than once a month. A few chairs, tables, and chests of drawers, of an ordinary description, a copper cooking kettle, with some earthen pots and pans of a very coarse kind, complete their furniture.

RELIGION.—The Greek church is the predominant faith of the islanders, the followers of the Latin or Roman creed being few—probably not exceeding 3,000: of Jews there are about 5,000 in the island, who are, unfortunately, hated by all the Corfiots. The Roman church was introduced into the island by the Venetians, and at first was only a bishopric; but Pope Gregory, in 1600, elevated the see to an archbishopric; the chief being generally a noble Venetian, chosen by the senate, and installed by the pope. The cathedral has a chapter composed of six canons, who elect a grand vicar. The clergy of the Latin church were heretofore paid by government stipends, but excepting life interests, this system has, I believe, been discontinued.

The Latin and Greek communion at Corfu have had many quarrels on the score of superiority—the latter claiming the right of precedence, which, indeed, the Venetian government secretly favoured; but Paul III. enjoined his clergy to cease all further quarrels, since which the Greek church has never been subject to any persecutions; and during Passion week the Roman and Greek churches have alternate processions on the esplanade. Idolatrous and full of vain ceremonial as the Latin church appears to protestants, the Greek is tenfold worse; no pagan mythology so abounds in superstitious rites, festivals, and fasts. Each year includes four Lents, and 191 fast days; during some parts of which the use of even fish is proscribed, and bread and vegetables alone permitted.

The Greek church has for its head a protopapa (archpriest), elected by ballot in an assembly of the clergy and nobles, and confirmed by the patriarch at Constantinople. The new protopapa is decorated with his robes in the hall of assembly, and conducted home amidst the ringing of bells and the firing of petareroes. The Corfu functionary is distinguished by the title of grand protopapa, and his authority is equal to that of a

bishop. The office lasts five years, at the expiration of which time he returns into the number of ordinary priests or papas. The cathedral has its canons like the Latin church, but no fixed prebend; the honour of being at the head of their church, and the distinction of a violet-coloured girdle, being the only advantage derived from the canonry. Marriages, baptisms, and funerals afford them some remuneration. The expenses of these ceremonies are, generally, eleven livres to the protopapa, and three to each canon, with a wax candle of a pound weight. Excommunications formerly constituted the most lucrative source of priestly revenue. Not long since a Greek purchased with a small sum the excommunication of his neighbour, who speedily retaliated by a similar measure, which rendered null that of his adversary. The same priest performed both acts with equal zeal. These thunderbolts of the Greek church, until neutralised, were very grievous inflictions. The ceremony was performed in the public street, and opposite the house of the unlucky victim, and the success was considered sure, provided the prosecutor had the means of feeding the protopapa himself, to come at the head of his clergy and pronounce the anathema, for the execution of which he proceeded to the spot in a mourning habit, a black wax candle in his hand, preceded by a large crucifix and a black banner; his suite in similarly lugubrious fashion. Imprecations, accompanied with violent gestures, constituted the dreaded anathema; and once pronounced, the luckless victim was excluded from visiting the church, and deprived of the prayers of the faithful—restoration being only procurable by a counter-excommunication. If the sinner had not the means of paying the expense, it often happened that he revenged himself by assassination. Since our government has been established, we have effected a modification of this shameless system, and excommunication can now only take place by the sanction of the archpriest or protopapa. The number of churches is very considerable: the officiating priest is chosen annually by the parishioners. In the country, most of the churches have been built by individuals, who, as proprietors, nominate the papas. The property of the church of St. Spiridion is vested in a private family, who exercise the right of inspecting the account of its revenues. Eight days previous to the festival of St. Spiridion, the doors, windows,

and steeple of the church are ornamented with festoons of laurel and myrtle. On the eve of the festival, the shrine which contains the body of the saint, marvellously well preserved (?), is exposed to the veneration of the people, dressed in pontifical robes, overshadowed by a costly canopy. Then follows a procession, the most offensive features of which have happily of late years been done away with.*

In all public calamities the relics of the saint are exposed with the most infatuated confidence. The church of St. Spiridion enjoys the revenues of some lands which various individuals have bestowed for its support. The superstition of the people still affords a considerable harvest to the island clergy. The mariner and the artisan still hope to further the success of their speculations by sacrificing a part to St. Spiridion; and few boats leave the port without the representatives of the saint having an interest in the profits of the voyage.

The ecclesiastical establishments, in 1854, throughout Ionia, were as follows:—

Designation.	Churches & Chapels.	Number of Priests.	Amount of Salaries.
Greek:—			£
Public.	80	860	520
Corporate	872		3,835
Bodies	1,190		687
Latin	11	27	1,000
English	2	3	215
Scotch	1	1	—
Total	2,156	891	6,257

EDUCATION AND SCHOOLS.—At Corfu there is a public university, and an ecclesiastical seminary for the education of young men intended for the priesthood of the Greek church; in each of the islands of the state is a school entitled “secondary,” maintained at the public expense, where instruction is imparted in the Greek and Latin classics, in the modern Greek, English, and Italian languages, in arithmetic, and the elements of mathematics. In the chief town of each island is a central school, likewise maintained by government on the mutual

instruction plan, for teaching reading, writing, and arithmetic; and in these schools the village masters are trained. Besides these public seminaries, there are in each island district schools on the same plan, where similar instruction is given, the expense being defrayed by the parents of the children. The terms per scholar vary greatly, according to special agreement between the masters and parents, and are frequently paid in kind. Government also contributes to the maintenance of these schools, by furnishing books, slates, benches, &c., and, where no suitable building exists, by providing a school-house. The district and village seminaries are under the immediate superintendence of the head-master of the central school in each island, and there is an inspector-general of them all. The whole educational establishment is under the general direction of a commission for public instruction, revised and improved by Lord Nugent. The number of colleges and schools under government, in 1854, was, in all, twenty-four; with pupils—males, 6,024; females, 611=6,635.

The Press.—Nothing deserving this title exists in the islands; there is a government newspaper at Corfu, one-half of which is printed in Italian, and the other in the Romain Greek.

Libraries.—A collection of books, originally founded at Messina, in 1810, by British officers, and transferred to Corfu by them, has, since that period, gradually increased into a very respectable library of several thousand volumes, containing many valuable and well-selected books, to which ready access is at all times afforded by means of a moderate entrance-fee, and a small annual or monthly subscription. The medical officers of the garrison have, moreover, a collection of English periodical publications, and standard works. A small collection was made by the Canon Carale, by means of voluntary subscriptions from the nobility, &c. The books were lodged in the Franciscan convent of St. Giustina: to this the Ionian academy added theirs; but on the arrival of the French, the most valuable

* The worship offered at the shrine of the tutelary saint of Corfu is peculiarly revolting to the feelings of all whose faith is grounded on the doctrine of one all-sufficient Atonement offered by one Divine Mediator. It is, however, alleged that English rulers have erred by countenancing proceedings which they should have barely tolerated. Thus the Rev. S. S. Wilson writes—“I have actually seen Sir Frederick Adam, our late governor in the Ionian Isles, walking in pro-

cession with some scores of monks, supporting (? honouring) by his presence the bag of bones called St. Spiridion; his entire suite of officers around him, each carrying in his hand an immense lighted taper, while the natives have laid their sick in the path of this singular representative of protestant royalty, to be healed by the passing of the shadow!”—(*Sixteen Years in Malta and Greece.*) Such discreditable scenes are not now thus sanctioned by British authority.

volumes were abstracted by them. Some few remain at the convent.

CEPHALONIA, although second in rank to Corfu, is the largest of the islands composing the Septinsular Union. It is situated in $38^{\circ} 27'$ N. lat., and $20^{\circ} 32'$ E. long., having Santa Maura six miles to the northward, Zante eight miles to the southward, and being twenty-four miles from the west coast of the Morea. Its area is 348 square miles; extreme length thirty-two; extreme breadth eighteen; and the circumference (following the coast-line), 150 miles.

HISTORY.—Cephalonia, like Corfu, has had many names: some assert its original denomination to have been *Teleboa*; but Strabo denies this, and states it to have been Cheffali (from, it is presumed, *κεφαλη*, a head), in allusion to its superiority in size, and at that time in political importance also, to the other islands in the Ionian Sea. Homer, in describing the various armies of the Greeks assembled at the siege of Troy, represents Ulysses as commanding the *Cephalonites*, and gives the title of *Samos* to the island, which was also known by the name of Tetrapolis, from its four towns, of Palis, Same, Cranii, and Pronesos, called after the four sons of Cephalus. Pliny speaks of the island both as *Melana* and *Same*; Virgil, as *Dulichium*. Its early history is involved in fable or allegory, the leading features of which may be briefly stated.

The prevailing narrative is, that the Curetes, who occupied the island of Crete, spread over Ætolia, made themselves masters of Acarnania, passed into Ionia, and conquered the country of the Leleges, or Teleboans; after which they added to their dominion the islands in the Ionian Sea, and planted a colony in that of Cephalonia, to which they gave the name of Teleboa. Strabo, however, asserts that the Teleboans sought an asylum in this island, after being chased by Achilles from the continent, and places this event prior to the siege of Troy. The fierce warriors of Cephalonia (then called Teleboa), under the conduct of Ulysses, are therefore supposed to have shared with the Myrmidones the honour of avenging Menelaus.

Cephalus, an Athenian prince, being obliged to fly his country for the murder of Procris, his wife, took refuge in Bœotia, with Creon, King of Thebes. At this time the Teleboans had excited the wrath of the Thebans, by assassinating the brothers of

Alcmena, the wife of Amphitryon, their general. The army, strengthened by the assistance of the Locrians and Phœceans, who lent their powerful succour for the occasion, prepared to punish the audacity of the islanders. Cephalus offered his services, and was permitted to share the dangers of the expedition. The Teleboans were defeated in battle, and, after losing their king, submitted to the yoke of the conqueror. Amphitryon returned triumphant to Thebes, where he found Alcmena pregnant by Jupiter. She gave birth to Hercules. Cephalus remained in peaceable possession of the isle of Teleboa, which from thence was called Cephalonia. His successors and descendants reigned for six generations, when they abandoned the kingdom, and retired into Attica, in consequence of a supposed communication from the oracle of Delphi; whereupon, the throne of Cephalonia, being thus voluntarily vacated, the inhabitants resolved to adopt the republican form of government. The four principal cities assumed independence irrespective of each other, but were obliged to unite for the common cause: they therefore formed a republic, of which Palis became the capital, the supreme authority being divided between the senate and the people.

The power of the islanders, their progress in navigation, and their advantageous ports, rendered them, previous to the siege of Troy, valuable allies or formidable enemies to the various neighbouring people. The Argonauts touched at the port of Cranii, and on landing, Jason found himself surrounded by a people inured to the hardships of a seafaring life, and well versed in maritime affairs. Cranii was constantly frequented by vessels from Argos, whence its name of Argostoli, from the Greek, signifying the "fleet of Argos." Some other authorities, however, trace its nomenclature to *Argo*, the vessel of the Argonauts.

In remote times the Cephalonites took part in the various revolutions of Greece, and their unflinching courage often decided the victory in favour of the people whose cause they embraced. Before the Trojan war, Thucydides speaks in terms of commendation of the share borne by the Cephalonites in the contest occasioned by the inhabitants of Epidamnus, between the Corinthians and Coreyreans. The Cephalonites afterwards abandoned the cause of the Corinthians, on the Athenians declaring war against the latter people, who forthwith

dispatched forty vessels to punish the desertion of their late allies. This fleet arrived in Cranii, and the troops disembarked; but being a strongly fortified place, it resisted every attack, and the inhabitants surprised the Corinthians by night, and defeated them with great slaughter. The islanders remained faithful to the Athenians, supplying them with ships and men, whenever required, throughout a long series of wars.*

Cephalonia continued independent long after the downfall of Athens, Corinth, Sparta, and the other celebrated republics of Greece; but though it repulsed Titus Quintius Flaminius, the Roman consul, and long held out against the legions sent for its reduction, Fulvius finally stormed Same,† then containing 1,800 houses, and put the people to the sword. Cephalonia became a province of Rome, and remained such until A.D. 364, when it passed under the yoke of the emperors of the East, who continued masters thereof until 982, when the Lombards, a people of Pannonia, under the command of John Leone, conquered and took possession.

In 1125 A.D., Cephalonia again became subject to the eastern emperors, when they regained strength after the irruptions of the Ottomans, under Mahomet. The island is stated to have been given to Bandoïn, for his services against the Saracens, when they besieged Constantinople. On the death of Bandoïn, it was ruled by Galus, Prince of Tarento, to whom other islands in the Ionian Sea had been given by the eastern emperor, in return for money lent to aid the prosecution of the Saracenic

war. Cephalonia, on the downfall of the eastern empire, became like Corfu a dependency of the Venetian republic, which retained possession until Napoleon occupied Venice; since that period the island, as stated in the previous section, has successively passed under the government or protection of the Russians, French, and English.

PHYSICAL ASPECT.—Cephalonia is extremely broken and mountainous. The general direction of the mountains is from south to north. The southern extremity of the range, opposite the coast of Zante, is marked by the highest mountain in the Ionian Islands, the *Æaos* of antiquity—the Black Mountain, or *Moutagna Negra* of moderns, 3,625 feet above the level of the sea. Mr. Muir, who has attentively examined the island, says, that “the general aspect of the mountains is arid and barren, some of them being without a trace of vegetation, and presenting, from the bottom to the top, nothing but a rugged variety of brown and gray rock, with, perhaps, here and there a solitary olive-tree growing from a fissure betwixt them.” What little soil they may have formerly been covered with, has either been washed away by the rains, or, if found in the interstices and fissures, been carried down to cover the crusts of rock appearing through the scanty soil in the valleys below. On many of the heights are found large blocks, of various dimensions, of a hard calcareous stone, sometimes isolated, and sometimes in groups, lying often on the tops of the highest hills in great abundance. They are in general not angular, but rounded by the action of water, which

* The ruins of fortifications and ancient monuments of all kinds which have been found in the isle, leave no doubt of the riches of the people, or of the progress made by them in the fine arts. At about three miles' distance from Argostoli to the south-east, the walls of the ancient city of Cranii can easily be traced, occupying the top of a very rough and inaccessible ridge, which projects upon the east angle of the lake or gulf at its southern extremity. A considerable portion of the butt of the walls still remains, marking their circumference throughout, and partly consist of enormous masses of stone, hewn and laid together much after the same fashion as those existing at Santa Maura and Ithaca. All the different descriptions of cyclopean building are found here, the rougher and more massy specimens occupying the higher parts. The southern wall may be traced for about 1,508 paces, and another looking to the north-eastward extends for about 800 paces. The latter includes very large blocks of stone; at one part regularly squared, having probably formed the casement of a door. The juncture of the walls is formed

by nearly square masses; one, a very large stone, rests on two others, and is of the following dimensions: length, eight feet ten inches; depth, five feet two inches; height, six feet seven inches. A second, nearly quadrangular, is eight feet in width, three feet ten inches high, and four inches and a-half in thickness. A third enormous block is thirteen feet five inches in length, three feet three inches in height, and about the same in its greatest depth, which is, however, irregular. Besides these powerful artificial defences, the situation of the place was at once difficult and dangerous for the assault of an enemy, particularly the ascent to the south wall, which runs along the edge of a precipice throughout its whole length.—(*Kendrick*.)

† Cranii is mentioned in history as the capital of one of the four kingdoms, or districts, into which the island was divided. Philip of Macedonia, and the Roman consul Flaminius, were repulsed by its citizens; and according to Livy (*Book. xxxviii., c. 29*), the Samians held out against the Romans, under Marcus Fulvius, for four months.

must have been sea-water, from the number of marine fossil shells largely deposited in the rocks, at various elevations, all over the island. It is to be remarked, also, that these blocks appear much more compact than the rock of the mountain itself, which is likewise calcareous; in all probability, they are the *debris* of former elevations, perhaps of the continent of Greece itself, lodged there by currents before the island emerged above the level of the sea.

The top of Montagna Negra is usually covered with snow about the beginning or middle of December, which seldom wholly disappears before the commencement of May. The inhabitants say that disease was less frequent before the destruction of the wood on the Black Mountain, the north side of which was formerly covered nearly to the summit with forest trees, principally fir and cypress. About twenty-seven years ago the forest was completely destroyed by being set fire to by some evil-disposed person belonging to a political faction. The whole island, but especially the neighbouring valleys, are said to have ever since been subject to greater atmospherical vicissitudes, in consequence of the boisterous winds and storms having a gathering-point from whence to rush down on the plains below with unimpeded fury. At present, the north side of the mountain affords a very extraordinary sight; the whole slope, for miles, is thickly studded with the bleached trunks of trees entirely denuded of their bark, and without a leaf, many of them from thirty to forty feet high, presenting themselves, by their various forkings and withered branches, under the most grotesque and even hideous forms; a feature often observable along the mountain ridges of New Holland, after a dry summer, when forest conflagrations have been general.

The harbour of *Cephalonia* runs inland for eight miles; it is rather difficult of ingress and egress, owing to its serpentine form, but offers, nevertheless, a spacious and convenient shipping port. The entrance is extremely picturesque: on either side groves and plantations, relieved by a background of majestic mountains, greet the eye in varied succession. To the left, on the western side of the harbour, three miles from its entrance, stands the town of Lixuri (olim Palis), in front of which the haven opens into an inlet running to the south-east for three miles; and on the peninsula formed by this branch, and close to the sea,

stands *Argostoli*, the capital of the island. The town is built on a slip of level ground upon the western shore of the haven, at the foot of the narrow promontory or tongue of land above mentioned, which is about three miles and a-half long, does not exceed two miles in length at its broadest part, and gradually becomes narrower till it terminates in the point which forms the north-west extremity of the harbour. Argostoli occupies the centre of this ridge, and consists of two main highways, which run north and south, and a number of cross streets and lanes, all very narrow, but tolerably well paved, and with several common sewers. The principal street, or that next the water, is about a mile and a quarter long, and twenty feet wide; the other is much shorter. The town is about three miles in circumference, open, and unwall'd. The houses are generally two stories high, fronting the north-east, and are built of stone, cemented with lime and terra rosa, and covered with tiles.

The soil on which the majority of the houses are built is gravelly, but some stand on "made ground" recovered from the sea, in the neighbourhood of the wharfs and moles at the southern end of the town, which is decidedly more unhealthy than the northern extremity. The hills adjacent are thickly planted with the currant and the vine to the distance of about 120 or 130 feet up their sides, and interspersed with olive-trees, but above that level they are bleak and precipitous.*

Lixuri has nearly the same general characteristics as Argostoli; but cleanliness is much less attended to. It is situated on the northerly branch of the harbour, on an argillaceous schistous soil.

Catacombs have been found by the Venetians, French, and British to the south-west of Argostoli, and the remains of ancient warriors completely clad in their war dresses discovered, the bones crumbling into dust on the slightest pressure. Eight catacombs were opened in 1647, and the antiquities contained in them sent to Venice; the further investigations, made in 1810, produced little of antiquarian interest.

The citadel or castle of St. George, six miles' distance from Argostoli, is situated on the summit of a hill of considerable height, which constitutes the southern termination of a range, and forms the eastern side of the harbour of Argostoli.

* Hennen.

Cephalonia is at present divided into the cantons of Erizzo, Tinea, Samos, Anoi, Pilaro, Kaloi, Livadi, Potamiana, Ikongia, Skala, and Pirie. It formerly comprised four regions, each named after an ancient city (viz., Samos, Palea, Pronos, and Crani), and hence, as before stated, was called Tetrapolis. This division accorded with the natural configuration of the island, owing to the double aspect of the mountainous formation; one of the faces inclining east and the other west. The variety of mountain scenery presents many sweet and romantic views to the Cephalonian tourist, among which the valley and bay of Samos is of unsurpassed beauty.

GEOLOGY AND SOIL.—Limestone of secondary formation constitutes the chief characteristic. The ranges which project from the body of the island were originally a sand deposit, and their tops are incrustated with limestone. The strata of sandstone begin to appear one-third from the summit, and abound in shells and marine fossils. So rapid is the formation of carbonate of lime, that quarries where sandstone was hewn not many years since, are now in many places coated with thick sublimate. Crystals of sulphate of lime of a yellowish tint, and very brittle, are occasionally found; and stalactites of a greenish white, and remarkable for their hardness, abound in caves near the coast. A sulphurated mineral spring issues from a rock close to the sea, and is used externally and internally by the natives as a remedy for *psora*. The soil is generally of a light calcareous nature, thinly sprinkled on a rocky substratum; but in some of the deeper valleys and ravines there are beds of rich alluvium, mixed with a fine red mould termed "*terra rosa*," which is occasionally employed for covering the roofs and floors of houses, or, mixed with lime, as a substitute for mortar. In the Lixuri district there is a heavy gray argillaceous soil, approaching somewhat to the nature of schistus, useful in making tiles, bricks, and coarse earthenware.

CLIMATE AND DISEASE.—The general observations made respecting Corfu apply to the other islands: the thermometer maximum is 95°, the minimum, 44° Fahrenheit. Sharp frost prevails in January; heavy rains in February and March, succeeded by dry weather. In the middle of May heavy rain falls; June is sultry, with occasional showers; July, August, and September, clear, with occasional rain; October, fine;

with much rain from November 12th to December 20th; the remainder of the year clear, with snow on the mountains, which continues visible until April or May. As a whole, the climate may be said to be more variable than that of any other island of the Septinsular Union, owing, probably, to its elevation.*

VEGETABLE KINGDOM.—M. Sanveur speaks of several remarkable plants in Cephalonia; one of which, being eaten by goats, dyes their teeth of a bright golden yellow, and imparts a rich flavour to their milk; and a second turns gold to a whitish colour, similar to the effect of mercury.

The Cephalonites are more active, enterprising, and intelligent than the Corfiots: a number are educated as physicians; and when their studies are completed, they migrate to the Morea, Albania, and various parts of Turkey, there being scarcely a town on the continent without a Cephalonite doctor.

THE STAPLE PRODUCTS are currants, oil, wine, honey, linseed, cotton, lamb and hare skins, oats, and different kinds of fruit; the annual quantity of currants produced varies from five to six million pounds' weight; they are of a finer flavour than those of Patras or Corinth, or indeed of any of the other islands, except Zante.

The wine is next in importance. Owing to the variety of favourable soil, no less than eighteen different descriptions are produced: of the red vintages, that of Livadi enjoys the preference; and of white, that of Ribola and Cosanikio. There are three sorts of muscadell of excellent flavour. Of raisins, about 150,000 lbs. weight are annually prepared.

There are several small manufactories, viz., one of blue cotton cloths, and two or three for the preparation of maraschino, or rosolio, to which an exquisite flavour is given by the aromatic herbs and flowers of the island; the red, called "*alkermes*," has a delicious fragrance. Ship-building is carried on, and the deep water close to the shore at Lixuri is favourable for docks.

ZANTE.—This island, which Pliny states was once called *Ilyra*, is supposed to have been named Zante, Zacynthos, or Zacynthus, from being the burial-place of one of the Bæotian followers of Hercules. It is situated in 37° 47' N. lat., 20° 54' E. long., ten miles distant from Cephalonia, and lies

* For population, see "Corfu," p. 139.

opposite the Gulf of Lepanto or Patras, distant about fifteen miles from Cape Klarenza. The area is 156 square miles; the greatest length twenty-four miles; breadth, twelve; circumference, about seventy miles.

The island was formerly dedicated to Diana Opis; in whose honour three or four temples were erected by the Zantiotes. It has been considered as the burial-place of Cicero, from an ancient sepulchre being found, surmounted by a stone bearing the inscription, "M. TVL. CICERO HAVI TU TERTIA ANTONIO;" while beneath the urn containing the ashes, were the words, "AVE MAR. TVL.":*

PHYSICAL ASPECT.—The exquisite beauty of the island has obtained for it, by common consent, the palm among its compeers—"Zante, Zante, il fiore del Levante." The aspect is decidedly mountainous, three-fifths of the surface varying in elevation from 500 to 1,300 feet above the sea.

An extensive range lines the whole of the western coast. Occasional rising grounds skirt the shore. The most striking, as well as the loftiest of these detached eminences (1,300 feet high), is Monte Scopo, the "*Mons elatus nobilis*" of Pliny, which rises from the plain at the south-east end of the island, and is washed by the sea on its southern and eastern faces, sloping gradually on the land side. Towards the northern extremity of the plain, and the town of Zante, a chain of lofty cliffs extend for some distance: at the foot of these is a remarkable well called Crio Nero, which supplies the city and shipping with water. On a detached offset of these cliffs, which were formerly known under the appellation of Acroteria, is situated a castle of considerable antiquity. It crowns the top and one side of a hill formed of clay and calcareous stone, which rises immediately behind the town to a height of between three and four hundred feet. Several deep gullies indent its sides, and, to the southward, a very large mass is divided from the main body by a deep and impassable fissure, said to have been occasioned by an earthquake. The town stretches up the side of the hill to within about a hundred paces of the entrance of the fortress,—an enclosure of triangular shape, about fourteen acres in area. The entrance presents somewhat the appearance of modern military architecture, but the remaining portion is simply a strong old wall, occasionally loopholed, turreted,

* Sandys.

or battlemented, without any regularity of plan; and, consequently, without any military strength. The approach winds along the face of the hill, and the ascent from the town is easy.

The city of Zante is very imposing in its external appearance, viewed from the sea. It is an open, unwall'd town, and stretches along a gently curved bay for about a mile and three-quarters.

In breadth the town nowhere exceeds 300 yards, except towards the hill, upon which the castle is erected. Some of the houses are four or five stories high, built of stone, strongly clamped together with iron, and in the Venetian style of architecture, with triangular lattices to the windows; many have a good external appearance. The principal streets run parallel to the bay, and are intersected in various directions by lesser lanes and alleys. The Via Larga, or great street, would not disgrace any city in Europe. The houses are very handsome, and are furnished with piazzas in front, which afford a shady walk. Under these are shops, well stocked with the various products of England, the continent, and the Levant.

In the country there are about fifty villages, and many scattered dwellings of picturesque construction. Several of them are two stories high; and even the peasantry take pride in the adornment of their homes. As in all the other islands, there are no fire-places in the houses, and the majority of them are deficient in drainage.

The water of the island is peculiar. There are, in the town of Zante, forty-four cisterns, 1,288 public and private wells, and three springs, and fountains, which are all so highly saturated with sulphate of lime, or sulphate of soda, as to be unfit for culinary purposes; besides which, from the porous nature of the soil, proper reservoirs cannot be constructed to retain the rain-water; and owing to this cause, as well as to the proximity of the town to the sea, and its very small elevation above it, the water in the cisterns becomes brackish. Luckily for the inhabitants, a never-failing and copious supply of water is obtainable from the fountain of Crio Nero, before mentioned. Monte Scopo abounds in excellent springs.

In many parts of the island, according to M. Sauveur, springs of an oily taste and smell are found; some of them on the shore, though covered with sea-water, still retain their sweetness to a certain extent when

drawn from a depth, after the removal of the sea-water from the surface. All these springs have been greatly neglected, and many have been destroyed by the earthquakes.

GEOLOGY AND SOIL.—The western mountains, as also Mount Scopo, are formed of calcareous rock, with an occasional mixture of gypsum, principally of the gray foliated kind, with a proportion of selinite. The Castle hill is composed of a loose, friable, calcareous matter, mixed with clay and sand. There is some tolerably hard marble in the island; and around the villages of Agrassi and Sarachira, immense masses of selinite and foliated gypsum are observable.

The soil is of three different kinds—a strong clay in the plain, calcareous on the rising ground, and sandy near the shore. Zante possesses petroleum and tar-springs, somewhat similar to those of Trinidad.

There are many instances of longevity among the Zantiotes, and several inhabitants are known to be above ninety years of age, in the full possession of all their faculties.*

VEGETABLE KINGDOM.—Aromatic herbs, the odour of which is experienced some distance at sea, abound; the delicious flavour of the Zantiote honey is doubtless owing to the sweet and fragrant flowers. Currants, oil, wine, and flax are the principal vegetable products. Horticulture is a favourite pursuit. The state of agriculture is better than in the other islands: many of the farmers are educated and enlightened proprietors; and in the cultivation of the currant and vine, Zante is superior to Cephalonia and Ithaca.

SANTA MAURA (formerly called Neritos, afterwards Leucadia) is insulated, being cut off by a channel from the mainland of Acarnania. Cephalonia lies ten miles to the southward, and Corfu thirty-five to the north-west; Santa Maura itself being situate in 38° 40' N. lat., and 20° 46' E. long., and having an area of 180 square miles; an extreme length of twenty-three; an extreme breadth of ten; and a circumference of about sixty miles.

The island was anciently known under the appellations of Neritos and Leucadia. According to Eustathius, Pteroclaus had three sons; Ithacus, who gave a name to Ithaca, Neritus to the Acarnanian pro-

montory, and Polyctor to a place called Polyctorum. The island, on its separation from the mainland, was at first solely inhabited by Acarnanians; at a later period, it became a dependency of the Corinthians. Homer, in his *Odyssey*, mentions that the Leucadians furnished their contingent of men and vessels in the famous siege of Troy, and served under Ulysses, together with the Ithacans, the Cephalonians, and the men of Zante and Coreyra. Æneas, on his return, touched at this island:—

“At length Leucate’s cloudy top appears,
And the sun’s temple, which the sailor fears:
Resolved to breathe awhile from labour past,
Our crooked anchors from the prow we cast.”
Æneid, lib. iii.

By this it evidently appears that the temple of Apollo Leucas was feared by the sailors of those times; and the superstitious custom, in the present day, of throwing money in the sea beneath it, originated from the sacrifices formerly offered to propitiate the favour of the fabled deity. Oxen were sacrificed on the altar of this temple, which custom the Romans strictly followed whilst in possession of the island. The Leucadians entered into the famous league of the Greeks against Philip of Macedon.

Dion, in his expedition against Dionysius, the tyrant of Syracuse, was assisted by Tymonides, at the head of a considerable force of Leucadians. After the fall of the various small republics of Greece, the island passed under Roman domination. Lucius G. Flaminius conquered it. In the reign of Pompey, the famous temple of Apollo was pillaged and reduced to ruins by pirates. After the fall of the Eastern empire, Santa Maura was governed by a succession of princes whose names are lost: it was afterwards conquered by Logan, the Turkish admiral of Mahomet II. Pesaro, the Venetian general, captured the island from the Turks in 1502; but the senate at Corfu restored it to that power on the conclusion of peace. In 1681, Morosini attacked and subdued the island, after an obstinate resistance from the Ottomans. When the Morea was overrun by the latter, in 1715, the Venetians razed the fortifications, and fled; but returned in the following year, and remained there until the French destroyed their shadow of a republic.

In the year 1810, the English, under the command of General Oswald, successfully besieged the fortress, which has since remained in our possession.

* For population, see “Corfu,” p. 139.

PHYSICAL ASPECT.*—Santa Maura presents a mass of mountains, of which St. Elias, the highest, rises 3,000 feet above the level of the sea. The figure of the island is somewhat triangular; the north-west coast, which forms the base line, runs straight and perpendicular, the land rising a considerable height above the level of the sea; and the surface inclines irregularly towards the eastern coast, giving nearly the whole an eastern inclination. The ridge-line of the north-west face being, as it were, levelled off, gives a strip of land of about twenty miles in length a gentle slope towards the north-west; and this tract, despite its limited extent, contains many populous villages and much cultivated ground, and is, from its great height and free exposure to the northerly and westerly winds, peculiarly healthy during the hot summer months. The north-west coast, perpendicular nearly throughout, contains no single harbour or roadstead, and opposes a mass of pure limestone to the heavy surf rolled in by northerly and westerly winds towards the bottom of the Gulf of Prevesa. It would appear, that the constant action of this great body of water has given the land its present form; and that the *detritus*, or loosened matter, swept along the coast by the southerly and westerly winds, and carried round the north-eastern point of Santa Maura, has caused the present isthmus. This may account for the otherwise irreconcilable difference between the descriptions of ancient writers and the actual state of the island, as well as explain more recent changes.

The south-eastern extremity is narrow for about ten miles, giving the island a disproportionate length. The hills towards Cape Ducato are singularly grouped: they form a regular series of cones, diminishing gradually in size to the cape; and arc, as it were, cut upon the north-west faces by a plane, which is parallel with their axis, and continuous with the north-west coast of the island. The faces shown by these sections are of dazzling whiteness; one of them—Cape Ducato, which has a perpendicular height above the sea of about one hundred feet—is famous as the scene of Sappho's leap. Their convex surfaces are turned to the southward in rounded slopes, covered with evergreen shrubs down to the water's edge.

* I am indebted for this description to Surgeon Goodison, who resided for several years at Santa Maura.

Their figure is so near mathematical proportions, that the south-east coast is here indented with regular spherical angles. From the sea this singular formation is not so evident, but it is very striking when viewed from the tops of the cones, upon returning from a visit to Sappho's Leap. The change in the point of sight readily accounts for this; as, in the former instance, the curves and angles are seen clearly, the eye being in the same plane with them; whereas, in the latter case, the spectator is placed almost perpendicularly above them.

The next remarkable feature in the topography of the island is the new isthmus. From the north-east angle of the island a narrow and irregular waving strip of land, about four miles in length, extends across the mouth of the channel towards the coast of Acarnania, which it reaches within a hundred yards; and then runs parallel with that coast for about half a mile, forming a channel of equal length. From near its extreme point it sends off a ledge of rocks, of singular appearance and composition, at a small angle towards the north. When seen at even a short distance, it bears a perfect resemblance to a mole running out into the sea, and is by many believed to have been a work of the Romans. The ledge is about half a mile in length, and from twenty to thirty feet wide, with deep water at each side. Its breadth and direction are nearly uniform throughout, which heightens its special appearance. The rock of which it is composed consists of gravel and sand, accumulated there by the water, and formed, according to the size of the particles so brought together, into sandstone or pudding-stone. The substance which unites them is become as hard as the particles themselves; for upon breaking the mass with a hammer, the fracture goes through them equally with the interstitial matter;—the result is an exceedingly hard stone, capable of taking a certain degree of polish, which is used for building, as also for making stones for flour-mills and oil-presses. The loose gravel forming the isthmus seems to have been deposited on this rock as on a basis.

Amurichi, the chief town, about a mile in circumference, is situate on a beautiful plain two miles long and one broad, thickly covered with olives. About 6,000 persons inhabit Amurichi; the remaining population are scattered among thirty-two villages, some located on the very tops of the moun-

tains. There are no rivers, but numerous springs and natural fountains.

Like the other Greek islands, Santa Maura was at one time a place of considerable importance. The extensive ruins of the former city of Leucadia are situated about three miles from the present town, near the coast. The former capital was built by the people of Nerikos, a colony of Corinthians who had settled on the opposite coast; but who, probably for the sake of security, removed to the island.

The fortress is a strong, irregular, six-sided building, flanked by towers and outworks, its largest diameter running north and south. It stands on the isthmus which once connected the island with the adjacent continent, there termed Acarnania; has the open sea on the north and north-west, on the south and south-east a lagoon, and is completely insulated by wet ditches on the other points. The castle was built in the 13th century, by a Venetian prince of the house of Facchi, who likewise constructed the aqueduct that runs from the isthmus to the town: this causeway, which is upwards of half a mile in length, serves as a bridge, having 365 arches; in height it is nearly three feet above the surface of the water; but in breadth so narrow, that two persons cannot securely walk abreast. The aqueduct was repaired by Bajazet, the Ottoman emperor, but is now useless; the pipes having been destroyed by an earthquake, and some of the larger stones removed for building purposes.

GEOLOGY AND SOIL.—The basis of the primary ridge, running nearly north and south, in the direction of the Cassiopean range, is secondary limestone. Lesser ridges traverse the island, generally in a south and east direction: they are composed of crystallized, compact, fibrous, and earthy carbonate of lime and of gypsum, the lime always predominating. The soil is poor, but in a few places alluvial; it seems adapted for the growth of the vine, olive, and currant.

ITHACA (called *Thiaki* by the natives, *Ial de Compare* by the Venetians), in $38^{\circ} 25'$ N. lat., $20^{\circ} 40'$ E. long., is about eight miles distant from Cephalonia, and is bounded on the east and north-east by the channel of Zante and a group of small islands, the ancient Echinades; on the north by a part of Santa Maura; and on the north-west, west, and south-west by the channel which runs between Santa Maura and Cephalonia.

Somewhat more than thirty miles distant, in a south-east direction, lies the opening of the Gulf of Lepanto. Ithaca is irregular in shape: its extreme length, from north to south, is eighteen miles; extreme breadth, five; but in some places not more than a mile and a-half; the circumference is about thirty, and the area forty-four square miles. Whether this little island was the celebrated Ithaca of Homer, is not yet a settled point; its very name was forgotten until of late. But the modern inhabitants call their home *Thiaki*; and Sir William Gell has endeavoured to prove it the actual birth-place and patrimonial kingdom of Ulysses. The aspect is dreary and unprepossessing, the island being a series of heights running in an irregular ridge east and west; or it may be considered a single mountain divided into rugged and mis-shapen rocks. Homer's description is still correct:—

"Horrid with cliffs, our meagre land allows
Thin herbage for the mountain goat to browse."

Again—

"The rugged soil allows no level space
For flying chariot or the rapid race."

Mount Stephanos and Mount Neritos are the two highest points, the former rising immediately to the south, and Neritos to the eastward, above the chief town called *Vathi*, situate in one of the inlets of a bay four miles deep, and one of the most secure harbours in the Mediterranean.

Vathi is little more than a single street, upwards of a mile long, containing from three to four thousand inhabitants; the houses are built of stone, and the town remarkable for cleanliness and salubrity. The site of the alleged ancient capital of Ulysses is to the south-east of the present town; immense masses of hewn stone indicate the spot, as does also the situation of several gateways; and the remains of a suburb flanking the walls are distinctly observable. Near this place several sepulchres have been discovered; and coins, bracelets, bronze figures, chains, with other articles of exquisite workmanship carried from thence. An entire skeleton was found in one of these catacombs, having the head encircled by a gold coronet, the arms and legs by solid bands of gold; and an emerald ring of great value on one of the fingers.*

A cave wherein, according to Homer, Ulysses was placed while sleeping, by the Phaeacians, is situate at a small distance below the entrance of the harbour. On the

* Kendrick, p. 78.

isthmus near Aito, or the Eagle Mountain, are some ruins, or cyclopean walls, said to be the relics of the castle of Ulysses; and the famed fountain of Arethusa is pointed out on the recess of a declivity four miles from Vathi, and nearly covered with shrubs. Korax, a white limestone cliff, eighty feet in perpendicular height, fronts the sea upon the south-east coast, and somewhat resembles a bird with extended wings.

The antiquarian or classic student, desirous of fuller details regarding this romantic isle, will find gratification in following the researches of Sir William Gell, and the interesting descriptions of Assistant-surgeon Goodison.

GEOLOGY.—Like the other Ionian isles, Ithaca is a mass of secondary limestone; the rock is mostly found in loose insulated masses on the surface, in some places forming gigantic heaps—in others, worn into water channels by the mountain torrents. The soil, as may be expected, is exceedingly stony; and the declivities, where the vine and currant are cultivated, so great as to require terraces, which resemble the benches of a theatre; and, in contrast with the surrounding bleakness, give a picturesque character to the landscape. The fruit produced is excellent, and the wine superior in flavour to that of any of the other islands. The orange, lemon, and citron flourish, as does also the oak, which produces the velonia, or acorn, used by woollen dyers as a mordant to fix the colour of their cloth.

The Ithacans are hardy sailors, and are possessed of some shipping. Several islands, or islets and rocks, lie in the channel between Ithaca and the continent: the chief of these is Kalamos, near the mainland. Ithaca sends one member to the senate at Corfu, and has a municipality for the management of local affairs.

PAXO, an oval-shaped island, in $39^{\circ} 12'$ S. lat., $20^{\circ} 12'$ E. long., has an area of twenty-seven square miles, and a circumference of twelve miles. It is nothing more than a single mountain, and was probably, at one period, a part of Corfu, from the southernmost point of which it is only seven miles distant. *Port Gai* affords good anchorage for a few vessels; and there is an inner harbour formed by an islet, with a circular battery commanding the town, the houses of which are scattered in an irregular manner along the beach.

Paxo was first inhabited by colonists from Corfu; and by an ancient tradition, St. Paul is said to have landed and preached the gospel, after which he banished all reptiles from the island. To the southward of Paxo is Anti-Paxo, chiefly inhabited by fishermen, and, while the Venetians held sway, a notorious retreat for pirates, who levied heavy contributions on all who fell within their power.

CERIGO AND CERIGOTTO.—Cerigo, the most southern island of the Septinsular Union, in $36^{\circ} 6'$ N. lat., $22^{\circ} 50'$ E. long., is situated at the entrance of the Archipelago; to the north of Cance, and south of the Morea; five miles distant south from Servi, and fourteen E.S.E. of Cape Malio. Its area is 116 square miles, extreme length twenty, extreme breadth twelve, and the circumference about fifty miles. The island was anciently known (according to Pliny) by the name of Porphyris, from its possessing abundance of that description of marble. Ptolemy attributes the name of Cythera to Cytherus, the son of Phœnix, who established himself in the island. According to some, Cerigo was first peopled by the Lacedæmonians, who in the eighth year of the Peloponnesian war, were expelled by the Athenians under the command of Nicias. At a subsequent period it passed under the dominion of the Spartan republic, and served as a retreat to Cleomenes, who on the approach of Antigonus, King of Macedon, took refuge in Cerigo. Ptolemy, King of Egypt, was afterwards lord of Cerigo; the Romans next came into possession, then the Venetians; and it shared the fate of the neighbouring islands. Relics yet extant denote the former greatness of the place; "Pælo Castro" ruin, to the northward of the harbour, is said to mark the site of the ancient capital of Menelaus, the deserted husband whose wrongs caused the siege of Troy: the bath of the faithless Helen is still shown. Six miles to the east of the harbour of St. Nicholas, stood the former city of Cythera; and a little further to the south are some ruins, supposed to have belonged to a temple dedicated to Venus Cytheræa.

At the north of the island is Cape Sparti, with a chapel on its extremity: to the south is Cape Kapello, close to which is situate the chief harbour, and the capital of Cerigo, called Kapsali, which contains about 5,000 inhabitants, whose ill constructed

tenements are mostly of wood. The harbour is small; and vessels are sometimes wind-bound for several mouths off Cerigo. The island is scantily covered with soil, and subject to violent winds, which destroy the vineyards and plantations, so that it is very partially cultivated. The oil is of excellent quality, and brings a good price; the inhabitants, however, resort chiefly to fishing for their support, and are in a less advanced state of civilisation than those of the other Ionian isles.

Four miles to the south of the harbour is an insulated rock, of a sugar-loaf form, called "*P'Ora*," or the *Egg*, on which is found a shell-fish, partaking of the characteristics of conchilia, and yielding a colouring matter, supposed to have formed the basis of the famous Tyrian dye. Two miles off Cape Kapello, are two rocks called "*Kaphonisis*," or baskets. To the east of Cerigo lies the small island of Cerigotto, formerly known under the appellation of Ægilia, and now chiefly inhabited by Greeks and Turks, but subject to Corfu, as are also the isles of Strophades, Maganissa, Panorno, &c. Strophades, about twenty miles south-east from Zante, is about five in circumference. On its east coast stands the celebrated convent of the "*Redeemer*," built of white freestone, resembling marble, ninety feet high, divided into four parts, each protected by a tower. It is only accessible by a door leading to the vaults, which is closed up immediately on an alarm being given, when the monks are drawn up by means of baskets, after the manner of the Copt monasteries in Egypt. The establishment consists of about sixty brothers, with a grand and sub-prior, &c., supported by a revenue derived from landed possessions in Greece and Russia. The brothers of the order include several nobly born and well-educated men, possessing a good library and every comfort that rigorous seclusion can admit of. The building was erected by Prince Tocclis, but owed its celebrity to San Dionisius, who, after residing in Strophades several years, accepted the bishopric of Egina, but finally died at Zante in 1624. Several Zantiotes reside on the islands.

GOVERNMENT.—The civil government is composed of a legislative assembly, of a senate, and of a judicial authority. The *Assembly* consists of forty members, including the president: of the forty, eleven are permanent members, and twenty-nine

elected from the various islands in the following proportion:—Corfu, seven; Cephalonia, seven; Zante, seven; Santa Maura, four; Ithaca, one; Cerigo, one; Paxo, one. Each of the three last, in the rotation in which they stand (exclusive of that island whose regent becomes an integral member of the legislative assembly), elects a second. The members are chosen (on a double list formed by a majority of the votes of the primary council) from the body of the *sincliti*, or noble electors of each island. The elections, and all civil appointments, are valid for five years; and the session of the parliament of the states is held every two years. The votes are delivered *viva voce*, and the sittings open; ten members, and the president, or vice-president, constitute a legal meeting; and conferences with the senate, &c., are managed by the eleven integral members of the assembly, who form, with their president, the primary council. These eleven members, in the case of parliament having expired after lasting the whole five years, comprise the president and five members of the old senate, the four regents of the chief islands during the late parliament, and one of the regents of the smaller islands; but in case of a dissolution, instead of the regents, the lord high commissioner names five members of the late legislative assembly.

The *Senate*, or executive power, is composed of six members, viz., five and a president, entitled "*his Highness*;" while the senators are styled the "*Most Illustrious*;" the senators are elected out of the body of the legislative assembly in the following proportion, viz., Corfu, one; Cephalonia, one; Zante, one; Santa Maura, one; Ithaca, Cerigo, and Paxo, one. The power of placing a member of the assembly in nomination for a senator rests with the president, to whom an application is made in writing, signed by four members and the candidate himself, requesting such nomination; the election takes place three days at furthest after the meeting of the assembly, and is decided by the majority; the president has a casting vote in case of an equality. The sanction of the lord high commissioner is necessary to the validity of the election. The vacancies occasioned by the promotion of five members of the assembly to the senatorship are filled up by the transmission of double lists of names from the primary council to the *sincliti* of each island. The senators remain in office

five years; his highness, the president, half that period, eligible, however, to be re-appointed by the lord high commissioner. The senate names its own ministerial officers, with some exceptions, and has the power of nominating to all situations under the general government; the regents to the different local governments; the judges in all the islands; and generally to all situations, except merely municipal ones, with certain renovations. During the recess of parliament the senate has the power of making regulations which have *pro tempore* the force of laws; and can originate, as well as disallow, those passed by the legislative assembly. The lord high commissioner is appointed by the Crown; his excellency names in each island a resident, or representative. The regent, advocate, fiscal, secretary, and archivist of each island, are appointed by the senate, subject to the approbation of the lord high commissioner. The various municipal administrations consist of five members, independent of the president (who is the regent), appointed by the electors of each island, out of their own body, from a list of names approved by the regent and his assessors. Ten members being chosen by the *sincliti* from these "lists," five are selected from them by the regent to form the municipal body.*

The qualifications of the "noble electors" are, I believe, usually hereditary, and the pursuit of any trade or business is a disqualification. To form a legal meeting, one-half of the *sincliti* of each island must be present.

The respective powers of the assembly and senate are set forth in the Constitutional Charter, which those who are curious in examining the different forms of government, will be interested in perusing; it owes, I believe, its origin to the late Sir Thomas Maitland, and is a singular specimen of constitution making.

The *Judicial Authority* in each island consists of three tribunals—civil, criminal, and commercial; the judges are appointed by the senate, subject to the approval of the lord high commissioner. Independent of these courts, there are in each island tribunals for the trial of minor criminal offences, and for the adjudication of small civil suits; these are presided over by justices of the peace, appointed by the local regent.

At the seat of government there is, in addition to the foregoing courts, a superior

* See Ch. iv., Art. 9, "Constitutional Charter."

or high court of appeal, denominated the "Supreme Council of Justice;" it consists of four ordinary members (judges)—two English and two Greek, and two extraordinary members, viz., the lord high commissioner, and his highness the president of the senate. Trial by jury does not exist; nor are there any assessors to aid the judges. No crimes but those of murder and high treason are punishable with death,—which penalty is now rarely inflicted. Lawyers are very numerous; it has been calculated that every tenth individual is connected with the legal profession, and suits are known to have been protracted through several successive generations. The laws were formerly partly Venetian, partly Greek: a code has been framed for the islands, and was much needed, particularly as regarded the law of entail, now abolished, and that singular enactment by which a purchaser was compelled to restore a property to the seller, after the lapse of several years, for the same price at which it was vended—a measure that of course struck a blow at the root of improvement.

The gaols seem to be well managed: wherever the localities will admit, the debtors are separated from the felons; the cost for each prisoner is about 5*d.* per diem; the average of hard labour nine hours per diem, varying with the season. In Cephalonia those who work at the hand corn-mills receive half of their earnings, the gaoler one quarter, and the remainder is paid into the police chest. The prisoners are supplied with coarse clothing.

THE REVENUE obtained from customs, stamps, local rates for roads, &c., was, in 1833, £165,000; in 1854, £138,000; of this latter, £23,000 came from import customs and duties; £36,000 from export duty on olive oil; £29,000 from export duty on currants; £1,000 from export duty on wines. The salary of £5,000 to the lord high commissioner is paid by the Ionians, who have also, since December, 1849, contributed £25,000 per annum in aid of the military expenditure by Great Britain, which amounted, in 1854, to £110,000. The local revenues raised by the several island municipalities, average £50,000 per annum.

The imports amounted, in 1854, to £781,121, of which £372,277 consisted of goods in transit. The exports for the same year were valued at £374,366. Shipping inwards, in 1854—tons, 451,950: of this quantity there was, under the Ionian flag, 150,281;

under that of England, 34,107; and under Austrian colours (principally steam-packets belonging to the Trieste Company), 163,101 tons.

The exportable produce consists chiefly of currants, olive oil, wine, silk, cotton, fruits, &c. A large extent of the islands is in a state of nature, and absolutely pestilential, for want of a proper system of draining and tillage. Few proprietors cultivate their own lands, but usually let them out on short leases, the tenants binding themselves to return a fifth, or even a third, of the produce.

MANUFACTURES.—Oil is the principal manufacture, and the machines employed in it are of the rudest possible construction. The olives are pressed under a perpendicular stone wheel, which revolves in a large-sized horizontal stone of a circular form, somewhat hollowed in the centre. A horse or mule sets the machinery in motion, and a peasant runs before and shovels the olives under the approaching wheel, the action of which is necessarily confined to a limited space, while its power is very insignificant. The bruised mass is then transferred to a bag made of rushes or mat, which is subjected to heavy pressure, increased by means of a screw, wrought by two men at irregular intervals; for the labour is so violent, that it could not possibly be long continued. They ship two strong bars, after the manner of a capstan, and then, with a savage yell, urge them forward by a simultaneous push,

the effect of which is marked by a quantity of oil oozing through the mat, and falling into a hole cut in the ground for its reception. After the interval of forty or fifty seconds, the labourers rush forward again with similar violence, and with a bodily effort which must strain the whole frame. The quantity of oil that two expert labourers can express in a day, is estimated at ten or twelve jars of rather more than four gallons each. Some steam-engines have been recently introduced.

The wine would be decidedly good were it judiciously manufactured.

Salt is prepared in large quantity by evaporation under the rays of the sun. Soap, leather, and pottery are made, but of a coarse kind, and not to any great extent. There are also dealers in silk, lace, snuff-makers, confectioners, dyers, tanners, bell-founders, basket and mat-makers, &c., scattered throughout different districts.

The number of acres of land under cultivation throughout the Union is more than half a million [625,106.]

The protection of the Ionian Islands by England is an object of national importance; for, in conjunction with the positions of Malta and Gibraltar, they form a chain of maritime posts, and of commercial depôts, which establishes her power in the Mediterranean. In a Christian point of view these territories are valuable as nuclei for the diffusion of a tolerant faith, and of political liberty among neighbouring states.

SECTION XI.—HELGOLAND.

THE island of Heligoland, in the North Sea, or German Ocean, is situated in 54° 11' N. lat., 7° 51' E. long., and from twenty-four to twenty-six English miles distant from the mouths of the Elbe, the Eyder, the Weser, and the Jahde. It is of considerable importance to vessels bound to these rivers, not only because its church and lighthouse form an admirable beacon, but also because ships may here be supplied with experienced and licensed pilots.

In August, 1714, the island was conquered from the Duke of Schleswig by the

Crown of Denmark, which retained possession of it till the 5th of September, 1807, when it was occupied by the English; and in 1814 a formal cession was made to Great Britain, under whose government it still continues. The island is in form an acute angled triangle; it is now only about one English mile in length from north to south, one-third in breadth from east to west, and two miles and one-third in circumference. It was anciently of much greater extent, but there are no authentic records to determine how far it may have

stretched into the sea and approached the continent. In 1721, Heligoland and Sandy Island were connected by a low isthmus: a storm separated the islands, and the latter has since been gradually decreasing. Heligoland consists of an upper part, called the Oberland, and a lower, or Unterland, which lies in a south-easterly direction. The height of the Oberland, at its most elevated point on the western side, is 200 feet above the level of the sea, the eastern side being lower. The island is visible at a distance of sixteen and twenty miles; its first appearance is very striking, and the interest augments on a nearer approach.

The climate is mild, and resembles that of the midland counties of England, the heat and cold being tempered by the sea-breezes; the air is pure and very salubrious. Heligoland has been especially frequented by visitors from various parts of Germany, Prussia, Poland, and Russia, since the erection of baths in 1826; the waters being considered by physicians as the most efficacious in the North Sea.

The number of inhabitants is about 3,200. The population, which is increasing, is considerable for so small a spot, especially as many families have emigrated within the last twenty years from the want of employment at home. They are chiefly engaged in the fishery or navigation, and many also are brought up as pilots. There is a brewery and a distillery, and the number of mechanics and shopkeepers is commensurate to the wants of this small colony. The number of houses is 470. The Heligolanders are of Frisian origin, and speak a dialect of that language; but at church and in the school the high German alone is used. They are a tall and strong people, with handsome features and florid complexions; their habits are very

simple, and their indolence and timidity on shore are as remarkable as their industry and daring courage at sea.

There is one church, St. Nicholas, built in 1685, situated in the Upper Town, capable of containing from 700 to 800 persons; about 250 generally attend. The clergyman receives £74 per annum, and has likewise a house found him, together with two pieces of ground, one 48 fathoms long and 27 broad, and the other 140 fathoms long and 13 feet broad. The junior clergyman instructs the upper class in the school; the other two classes being taught by two schoolmasters. The total number of children in the schools is about 350.

By virtue of the capitulation concluded with Admiral Russel, in 1807, the inhabitants were permitted to retain their ancient constitutions and Danish laws—an agreement which has been strictly adhered to. The affairs of the island are administered by a governor (salary, £500), and a court composed of six municipal councillors, who are chosen from among the inhabitants. The finances and police are superintended by sixteen elders, and eight adjuncts, who with the municipal councillors constitute the government.

There are no manufactories, mills, or works, &c., of any kind. There has been one ship built in the colony of fifty tons burthen. There are about sixty boats employed fishing for haddocks and lobsters; between seventy and eighty thousand of the former, and about 27,000 of the latter are caught annually, the whole of which go to Hamburg and Bremen, with the exception of seven or eight thousand lobsters annually sent to England; value of haddocks, £3,333; value of lobsters, £675; total, £4,008. There are no horses; and very few horned cattle, sheep, or goats in the island.*

* Lieutenant-governor Hindmarsh, referring, in 1845, to the species of birds which visit the island, says—"Birds are found here whose habitat extends northward from 75° N. lat., as *Larus Sabinii*; together with such as have their nesting-place in the tropics, such as *Grus Virgo*, the Numidian crane. The Himalaya mountains, Siberia, the United States of North America, and other countries, furnish the island with specimens. The astonishing number of 300 different species have been obtained in this island. Among them, besides those already cited, the following are worthy of notice:—*Falco Islandicus*; *Falco Rufipes*; *Turdus Whitei* (belonging to the Himalaya; the specimen of this bird figured in Gould's *Birds of Europe*: plate 21 was from Heligoland, though there described as from Hamburg); *Turdus Bechsteini* (*Atrogularis*); *Turdus Lividus*; *Sylvia Galactodes*, several times

(Gould, plate 112); *Sylvia Coerulecula* (the blue-throated warbler, but having a red spot in the blue throat instead of a white one), in great numbers; *Regulus Modestus* (*Dalmatian Regulus*, Yar. *Brit. Birds*, vol. i., p. 355); *Anthus Ilicardinii*, *Anthus Rufularis* (Gould, plate 140); *Metacilla Melanocephala* (sometimes in considerable numbers), and another *Wagtail*, which has not yet been placed in the lists of European birds; *Alanda Alpestris*, *Alanda Brachydaetila*; *Emberiza Melanocephala*, *Emberiza Rufibarba* (*Syrian Hortulan*), *Emberiza Rustica* (Gould, plate 177); *Emberiza Pusilla*, five or six times; *Caprimulgus* (Gould, plate 52); *Charadrius Vignificus*; *Tringa Rufescens* (Yar. *Brit. Birds*, vol. iii., p. 57), &c. These and other rare and interesting specimens found on the island, are prepared and stuffed in an ingenious manner, and assembled in a collection interesting to every ornithologist."

CONCLUSION. AND PARTING ADDRESS.

A SELF-IMPOSED task is ended,—the result of five-and-twenty years' study, expenditure, and travel, in each quarter of the globe, is now before the public; and a testimonial (not a monument) has been constructed, illustrative of the maritime dominion and power of England in the middle of the nineteenth century.

In bidding farewell to those who have honoured his labours with their support, the author cannot but gratefully express his lively satisfaction at having been sustained to the completion of a national undertaking, without incurring the imputation of being swayed by party predilections or government influence; his position throughout the period of publication having been entirely independent. He earnestly hopes that, while endeavouring to convey some idea of the vast territorial power of England in every region of the earth, and explaining the direct influence exercised over the physical and moral state of more than a title of the human race, he has not failed to set forth the serious responsibility incurred by the governing nation to Him who giveth or withdraweth dominion according to its application and use in good or evil stewardship.

When time has been given for the dissemination of this history throughout the empire, and the value of "colonies" become more justly appreciated by statesmen and economists, the author and his readers may again meet to discuss topics intimately associated with the present position and future state of Britain.

The points which require elucidation are briefly these:—*First*. The rise and progress of England, as a maritime nation, in intimate connexion with the acquisition of colonies, and the consequent development of commerce and manufactures. *Second*. The effect of colonial dominion in producing an elevated tone of society and more catholic views, resulting in an extension of civil and religious liberty. *Third*. The beneficial influence exercised on the physical condition of the British public, by the encouragement held forth to enterprise, and scope for energy offered in the outlying, thinly-inhabited, but fertile domains of the Crown. *Fourth*. The lucrative and honourable employment furnished in the various local governments to intelligent members of the upper and middle classes of society, who, as in India, Canada, Africa, Australia, and elsewhere, are placed under a description of training which experience has proved singularly favourable to the formation of eminent statesmen and warriors. *Fifth*. The conversion of several million paupers into prosperous emigrants, profitable instead of useless consumers of the national resources. *Sixth*. The establishment of reformatory penal schools at the Antipodes, where banished felons, removed by half the earth's circumference from their accustomed haunts and vicious associations, may and have been taught to lead a new life, and to earn for themselves, and bequeath to their children, the fruits of honest industry. *Seventh*. The varied products of diverse climates, indispensable to the steady progress of manufacturing and commercial operations, are supplied with regularity and economy, and for the most part in annually increasing quantities, from sources wholly unaffected by the friendly or hostile disposition of foreign cabinets, while the same regions afford unfailing markets beyond the reach of prohibitory tariffs: in a more general sense, the colonies ensure a constant flow of wealth and power, from every quarter of the globe, to Britain;—the mother country, in return, acting as the heart of a gigantic frame, sends the vigorous life-blood through every member of the body corporate. On the continuance of this joint and healthful action depends (under Providence) the duration of a mighty empire. *Eighth*. The naval and mercantile marine—the pride and safeguard of the nation—is inseparably connected with its colonial dominion; was twin-born, and has ever since grown with its growth, and strengthened with its strength. *Ninth*. In a military point of view, England owes scarcely less to her colonies; for, without them, how could the marshalled ranks of her standing army find place within the sea-bound shores of the United Kingdom, without giving umbrage to popular feeling, if not, indeed, without endangering public liberty? In the *Tenth* and last place, it may be well to name the less definable but not less real advantages attached to the *prestige* of wide-spread dominion. To intelligent foreigners the British colonies are a source of never-failing interest; and "John Bull" may well be pardoned a little self-congratulation regarding the possession of an empire on which "the sun never sets."

G A Z E T T E E R

OF CITIES AND TOWNS IN THE COLONIES AND TRANSMARINE POSSESSIONS OF THE
BRITISH EMPIRE—INCLUDING INDIA AND THE ADJACENT TRIBUTARY, DEPENDENT,
AND ALLIED STATES.

[ABBREVIATIONS—(I.) India—(C.) City.]

[illegible]

[illegible]

[illegible]

[illegible]

[illegible]

[illegible]

[illegible]

[illegible]

[illegible]

DEDICATED BY SPECIAL AUTHORITY
TO HER MOST GRACIOUS MAJESTY THE QUEEN.

THE
BRITISH COLONIES;

THEIR
History, Extent, Condition, and Resources:

BY R. MONTGOMERY MARTIN, ESQ.,

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